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CONFERENCE ON CRITICAL LANGUAGES IN LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES, UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON (APRIL 6-7, 1965).

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ONE OF THE MAIN AIMS OF THE CONFERENCE ON CRITICAL LANGUAGES HELD AT THE UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON APRIL 6-7, 1965, WAS TO FIND A CONSENSUS OF OPINION AMONG LINGUISTS, LANGUAGE TEACHERS, AND COLLEGE ADMINISTRATORS ON THE PROBLEMS OF INTRODUCING CRITICAL OR NEGLECTED LANGUAGES INTO THE CURRICULUM OF SMALL, LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES. THE CONFERENCE WAS ALSO DESIGNED TO ALLOW SPECIALISTS IN SIX CRITICAL LANGUAGES--ARABIC, CHINESE, HINDI-URDU, JAPANESE, PORTUGUESE, AND RUSSIAN--TO PRESENT A SUMMARY OF AVAILABLE MATERIALS IN THESE LANGUAGES AND TO FORMULATE CERTAIN PRINCIPLES WITH RESPECT TO THEIR TEACHING. IN ADDITION TO THESE SUMMARIES AND COMMENTS, A REPORT OF THE KALAMAZOO COLLEGE PROGRAM IS INCLUDED. THIS PROGRAM WAS DESIGNED TO PROVIDE FOR SMALL GROUPS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDENTS TO STUDY INEXPENSIVELY AND AT SELF-PACED RATES, USING LARGELY SELF-INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS AND FOREIGN-STUDENT "DRILL-MASTERS." A COPY OF THIS CONFERENCE REPORT IS AVAILABLE UPON REQUEST FOR $0.50 PLUS POSTAGE FROM THE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES, 1818 R STREET, N.W., WASHINGTON, D.C. 20009. (AMM)

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CONFERENCE ON CRITICAL LANGUAGES

IN

LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES

University of Washington

6-7 April 1965

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PREFACE

During recent years an increasing concern has been expressed regarding the limited ethnic and linguistic focus of American education. It has been noted that languages of certain very important areas of the world receive but scant attention in most American colleges, despite the urgent need for understanding in a world of newly powerful political hegemonies. Of particular interest are the so-called "non-Western"[1] cultures, which--among others--have been designated as "neglected."[2] The central indices of such cultures are, of course, their languages, and it has therefore been recognized with some alarm that knowledge of these "critical" tongues is not likely to be generated spontaneously within present educational structures. A number of high-level conferences have thus been brought to bear on the problem. Three of these were held during the present academic year: one at Princeton University (Oct. 12-13, 1964),[3] another at Northwestern University (Jan. 16-17, 1965),[4] and the third at the University of Washington (April 6-7, 1965.)

The Conference on Critical Languages in Liberal Arts Colleges had its inception very soon after reports from the Princeton conference were available. At that time it was observed that the large number of scholars (68) there represented had found little time to concentrate on the more technical aspects of critical language instruction; indeed, few among them could even be styled as practicing linguists. Through subsequent efforts of Dr. Charles Ferguson, Dr. Lyman Legters and Dr. George Taylor, interest was then kindled in supplementing the Princeton conference with another, smaller one, to which linguistic experts might be drawn.

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1. See esp.: "The Non-Western World in Higher Education," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 356 (Nov.), 1964.
   Non-Western Studies in the Liberal Arts Colleges.
   Washington, D. C.: Association of American Colleges, 1964.
2. See note 4.
3. "Undergraduate Instruction in Critical Languages and Area Studies."
4. "Conference on Neglected Languages."

The University of Washington conference was supported in the main by the U. S. Office of Education. Publication of this Report has been made possible through cooperation with the Association of American Colleges. Special credit should be given here to those officials who were primarily instrumental in bringing this conference into being: Dr. Donald Bigelow, Dr. Lyman Legters and Dr. D. Lee Hamilton--all of the U. S. Office of Education--and Mr. F. L. Wormald, vice-president of the Association of American Colleges. It should also be recorded that the Report itself (pp. 1-6) was composed by William Cowan, then amended by Leon Pacala, Charles Ferguson and F. L. Wormald.

Carroll E. Reed (editor)

CONFERENCE REPORT

On April 6th and 7th, 1965, a conference on critical languages in liberal arts colleges was held at the University of Washington. It was sponsored jointly by the Far Eastern and Russian Institute of the University of Washington and the Association of American Colleges, with the hope of finding a consensus among linguists, language teachers, and college administrators as to the problems of introducing critical or neglected languages into the curricula of small liberal arts colleges. The conference was also designed to allow specialists in six critical languages--Arabic, Chinese, Hindi-Urdu, Japanese, Portuguese, and Russian--to present a summary of available materials in these languages and to formulate certain principles with respect to the teaching of them. The conference was not intended to solve all the problems of this subject (indeed, it could scarcely begin to do that), but merely to clarify them for the guidance of faculties and administrators who are responsible for curricular development but have no first-hand knowledge of what is involved in teaching the critical languages. A number of views were represented by the participants in the conference, but the main discussion was devoted to presentations of professional linguists and language teachers.

Another important component of the conference was a report on the experimental teaching of critical languages at Kalamazoo College, a program consisting largely of self-study by individual students of any language for which suitable materials exist. This was designed to illustrate one way in which a small college with limited or almost non-existent resources can make such languages available to its student body.

The conference was opened by the chairman, Dr. C. A. Ferguson, who first presented a statement of the background and aims of the conference. He pointed out the desirability of discussing the subject primarily from the point of view of language teaching, rather than curriculum development, with the hope that the opinions furnished and information developed would itself be of aid in helping college administrators make decisions on the introduction of these critical languages.

Dr. Ferguson's statement was followed by the comments of Mr. F. L. Wormald, representing the Association of American Colleges, who indicated the Association's interest in this discussion. Mr. Wormald then defined the position of the Association in the larger area of "non-Western

studies" in liberal arts colleges. He pointed out that members of the Association believe the broadening of liberal education to include elements outside our Graeco-Hebraic heritage is vital to undergraduate education. He further indicated that the teaching of the languages by means of which these studies can be pursued is an integral part of the entire effort.

Then Dr. L. H. Legters, of the U. S. Office of Education, reported on the support given by the government through NDEA programs in the establishment of undergraduate and graduate centers for the study of critical languages. He identified three major problems that are of concern to his organization: the introduction of critical languages into the undergraduate curriculum; area instruction; and library resources. Dr. Legters was questioned by the group on details concerning the nature of the government support given, the number of programs and the areas associated with them, and eligibility of the students involved.

Dr. Ferguson then called upon Dr. Peter Boyd-Bowman, of Kalamazoo College, to report on the experimental program being carried out there. (This report is included as an appendix here.) Following his remarks, a number of questions were asked by the group, concerning the transfer of credits awarded in the program, the selection of students, testing procedures, and the relative efficacy of materials used. The transfer of credits seems to present no problem; the students all rate high in language aptitude; and the Chinese material, being the result of many years' experience, seem to be highly appropriate for this type of program. Dr. Boyd-Bowman's report was very well received and made a very strong impression on the participants. Later, he played a number of tapes of examinations given at various intervals, and it was agreed that, in general, the students appeared to be making excellent progress.

The chairman then called upon Dr. Nicholas Bodman to present a summary of the available teaching materials in Chinese. (This summary, as well as those for the other languages, is included here as an appendix.) The questions and discussion following Dr. Bodman's report were centered around the problems of written versus spoken Chinese. This was a matter also to come up in later discussions, since five of the six languages concerned use non-Latin scripts, which slow down the learning process and further affect student attitudes and achievements in learning these languages. The discussion was also concerned with estimating the amount of time that a student needs in order to get a worthwhile command of a difficult, non-Western language. This problem was also to be discussed later on in the conference, so the chairman suggested that it be postponed until after the other reports were completed.

Dr. Eleanor Jorden, of the Foreign Service Institute, next gave a summary of the materials available in Japanese. She stressed the need for tapes to accompany these materials, especially in small colleges where adequate taping facilities may be absent. She also commented upon experimental self-study kits being made available by the FSI to those colleges having no regular instructor available.

Arabic teaching materials were reviewed by Dr. William Cowan. In addition to the problem of learning a non-Latin script, the student of Arabic faces a very sharp distinction between written Arabic and its various colloquial counterparts. No available materials successfully bridge this gap.

Dr. Henry Hoge distributed a list of available teaching materials in Portuguese which he then discussed along with the problems of Portuguese in general. The material was listed according to various categories: basic texts, reference grammars, readers. Dr. Ferguson suggested that this format be used as a model for drawing up the other lists to be incorporated in this report. Dr. D. L. Hamilton pointed out that the Office of Education is interested in preparing selective bibliographies of books in English for background and area studies, so it was suggested that such material be omitted from the present lists, which could then be conveniently restricted to language learning materials.

Dr. G. B. Kelley dealt with the available material on Hindi-Urdu. One of the outstanding problems, in this instance, stems from the fact that Hindi-Urdu is essentially one language written with two different scripts, both non-Latin. The general tendency in college teaching and in material preparation is to begin with the Devanagari script of Hindi, and progress to the Arabic script of Urdu at a later date (if at all). Another problem in Hindi-Urdu is the lack of a standard form of the language. The basic materials are generally useful, but none can be accepted without some qualifications.

The chairman here suggested that, in addition to formally prepared lists of materials, the various language specialists should write a brief description of each language concerned, pointing out such things as dialectical diversity, non-Latin scripts, or other features that may not be known to non-specialists.

Next, Dr. L. I. Twarog reviewed teaching materials in Russian. The situation in Russian differs from that of the other languages since Russian is so widely studied in this country, and the quantity of available texts is very large, including a number from the Soviet Union. The problems in Russian now are centered on basic research--such as word frequency and

higher-level syntax--and the outlook in basic teaching materials is optimistic.

Following a brief discussion on the teaching of African languages, the conference returned to a topic that had been touched on before--the amount of time necessary for students to get a worthwhile command of the languages under discussion. Various views were expressed, and it was decided that two years should constitute a minimum. It was suggested that the discussion concern itself primarily with hours of instruction, rather than courses or years, since what constitutes two years at one college may mean more or less than two years at another college. This idea did not prove acceptable because of the difficulty of deciding whether hours spent in a language lab or hours of self-study should be included. In the course of the discussion, however, various degrees of intensity were described ranging from 240 hours of contact learning per semester for Russian at one institution, to 2000 hours of Arabic in a two year period at the FSI. The point was also suggested that instruction in critical languages, being newer, is frequently better in quality than instruction in other languages, making it difficult to find a yardstick that could be used for all languages. The discussion frequently veered into the area of college administration, although it was soon recognized that this enlargement in the scope of the conference was probably not part of the present task. No further consensus was reached by the time the first day's session adjourned.

The following day, the chairman called upon the language specialists to discuss problems of writing systems in more detail than they had done the day before. Dr. Twarog pointed out that the Cyrillic alphabet of Russian presented no problem to students, who frequently master it in a day or so. The problems with Devanagari are somewhat more complicated, but do not appear to be of great hindrance to students. Arabic script is more difficult, not only because of its shape, but also because there is a multiplicity of possible written styles ranging from the complete and puristic to the largely colloquialized. The Chinese system presents a much greater problem for which there seems to be no easy solution: students just have to memorize characters, and the extra time necessary for this must be taken into account. Dr. Bodman suggested, however, that students can restrict their learning of Chinese characters to those that are frequent in ordinary prose, and leave aside the rarer forms or those that occur mainly in conversation. It was agreed that no college course in Chinese should omit introduction to written Chinese, and that it should be introduced early in the course. The problems in Japanese are largely parallel to those in Chinese, except that Japanese uses three different systems--two syllabaries, and a set of Chinese characters--which makes literacy in Japanese an extremely complicated affair. The only feasible course to

take is to limit the number of characters to be learned at a beginning stage, and realize that it may take much more study to command the full range of characters.

Dr. Hoge pointed out that, although Portuguese is written with the Latin alphabet, the chaotic state of Portuguese orthographic habits and the Luso-Brazilian dialect situation creates a reading problem in Portuguese also, although not to the degree of the other languages.

The discussion then moved to the problems of providing staff for the teaching of these critical languages. Various solutions were suggested regarding the scarcity and expense of trained, full-time language teachers. One was the pattern at Kalamazoo, where one full-time linguist was able to supervise instruction in a number of languages by relying on adequate taped material and the use of foreign students as drill masters. Another suggestion was the part-time use of faculty members who taught other subjects. Cooperating groups of colleges--such as the Associated Colleges of the Midwest and the Great Lakes Colleges Association--are sometimes able to pool their staff resources, with a program of itinerant faculty members, a student, or both. For Chinese, the suggestion was made to recruit part-time teachers from other fields, such as Library Science. In all of these cases, it is presumed that materials exist which can be used by non-professional language teachers. The shortage of trained teachers for these languages will presumably not be ameliorated for some years to come, in spite of beginning activity by government and other sponsoring sources.

Testing procedures were discussed next. Dr. Jorden explained the FSI testing system, which rates on a scale from 0 to 5, with intermediate pluses in both speaking and reading. The grade 0 is defined as no knowledge; 5 is knowledge equivalent to that of a cultivated native speaker. These ratings were devised to test the results of full-time intensive language training for Foreign Service officers, and are sometimes difficult to transpose to the college situation. For shorter programs, where almost all the students would stand between 1 and 2 on the FSI scale, this grading system is not fine-grained enough to distinguish the students' relative command of the language. It was pointed out that the development of standardized tests for critical languages has begun to receive attention from organizations like the MLA, and that positive results can now be hoped for.

The final portion of the conference was devoted to a review of the recommendations and plans for the report.

The conference on critical languages in liberal arts colleges started with the assumption that the study of such major world languages as Arabic,

Chinese, Hindi-Urdu, Japanese, Portuguese and Russian should be included in American higher education not merely as a special-purpose course for foreign area careers but in its own right as a valuable element in liberal education. The conference tried to answer two questions: Is it possible to have effective instruction in these languages in small liberal arts colleges? If so, how?

The consensus of the conference on the first question was clear. In spite of the real problems involved in providing this instruction, it is certainly feasible for a college to introduce one of the critical languages. The difficulties of a non-Latin script are in some cases much less than is commonly believed and in other cases can be overcome by careful restriction of goals and the use of special techniques. The cultural differences reflected in these languages do constitute a language learning problem, but also the exposure to them is one of the principal benefits of the study. The present lack of qualified teachers can be met by special instructional patterns, some of them well tested and of demonstrated effectiveness; in this connection the large numbers of foreign students in the United States who speak these languages constitute an unusual resource.

In answering the second question the conference was able to show that during the last few years a considerable body of teaching materials has been produced for these languages, largely under NDEA auspices. As a result, even though improvement is still needed, textbooks and tapes now available are in some instances superior to materials used for teaching the more commonly taught languages. Also, in the past ten years, largely with NDEA and foundation support, special intensive programs of study in the summer and overseas have been developed which can complement undergraduate instruction in the critical languages.

Recommendations

1. Even with present limitations of staff and materials, as well as constraints of curriculum, it is feasible to introduce the study of critical languages into American liberal arts colleges in such a way that it will be a valid component of liberal education.

2. Instruction in a critical language should be introduced in a liberal arts college only if the equivalent of at least two full years of work in a specialized university program can be offered.

3. Emphasis in the early stages of instruction should be on oral control, but in every case, work in reading should be introduced in the first year.

4. When languages present special learning problems because of complicated writing systems or a classical-colloquial split, restricted objectives should be decided on to avoid dispersion of effort and discouraging results.

5. Of alternative patterns of instruction, the most desirable is usually a professional teacher of the language, regular class sessions at least four or five hours a week, and supplementary work in a language laboratory or with the instructor. It is also feasible to have a linguist or language specialist on the faculty supervise instruction by an informant, i.e. a foreign student or other speaker of the language present on the campus. In this case some special training for the informant must be provided.

6. In cases where it is not feasible to set up a full program of instruction in a critical language, and in cases where for some special purpose a more unusual language must be offered, a supervised program of individual study with special materials and tapes like the Kalamazoo program can be effective. It should be noted that, while this is a promising means of meeting the special needs of a small fraction of the student body, it provides no solution to the problem of including one of the critical languages as a standard component in a liberal arts curriculum.

7. Valuable adjuncts to undergraduate instruction in critical languages now exist in the form of intensive summer courses at universities, the undergraduate year at Princeton and other institutions and provisions for study abroad for the undergraduate who has completed elementary preparation. Any liberal arts college which introduces study of the critical languages should take full advantage of these adjuncts.

8. It is desirable that standardized tests of proficiency in the critical languages be developed so that small colleges may have an effective means of measuring their work in comparison with that of other institutions.

THE KALAMAZOO PROGRAM

By Peter Boyd-Bowman

Problem. Most small undergraduate colleges of today are keenly aware of the need to broaden their curriculum to include some of the major languages of Africa and Asia. The acute shortage of qualified instructors, however, coupled with the uncertainty of undergraduate interest in any one non-Western language on a given campus in a given year, makes formal programs difficult to initiate. Moreover, unless sufficient enrollments or heavy subsidies can be guaranteed, the cost of formal instruction is often prohibitive.

Aim and implications of the Kalamazoo program. Since 1963 this writer has been developing for Kalamazoo College, under contract with the U.S. Office of Education, a basic program in non-Western languages potentially so inexpensive and so simple to initiate that it can be duplicated on any campus in the U.S. The program, largely self-instructional, has a limited but realistic objective, that of laying a foundation of oral competence in a 'neglected' language, roughly equivalent to the first three semesters of formal instruction elsewhere. Students who acquire this basic competence at Kalamazoo College are then expected to continue their study of the language either in graduate school or at one of the numerous language institutes and area centers throughout the country. Since NDEA Title VI fellowships are increasingly available for such study, the motivation to continue is strong. The languages currently offered under Kalamazoo's Neglected Language Program (henceforth to be referred to as the NLP) are Mandarin Chinese, Japanese, Hindi-Urdu, Persian, Swahili, and Brazilian Portuguese.

General description of the NLP. The essential ingredients of the program in each language are as follows:

(a) one or more highly motivated students of proven linguistic aptitude,

(b) commercially available, audiolingually-oriented course materials such as those prepared by the Foreign Service Institute or the Yale Institute of Far Eastern Languages, together with complete sets of accompanying tapes,

(c) a portable tape-recorder for loan to each participating student (unless the student happens to have his own),

(d) a native-speaking exchange student to serve as a pronunciation drill master (NOT as an instructor),

(e) regular academic credit,

(f) a specialist from a leading university invited quarterly to evaluate progress and furnish the grade for the quarter's work,

(g) a faculty member, familiar with audiolingual techniques, to serve as part-time coordinator for the entire program.

It will be noted that the program requires NO classroom instruction, NO minimum enrollment and NO formal training in linguistics. Since each student is on his own, his rate of progress is limited only by his own ability and initiative.

History of the NLP. Earlier successful experimentation with self-instruction in Spanish, in which qualified undergraduates mastered the MLA's Modern Spanish entirely under lab conditions, i.e. without formal instruction of any kind, encouraged this writer to undertake similar experimentation with non-Western languages traditionally considered difficult, including a tone language such as Mandarin.

After nearly two years of work, during which many improvements have been incorporated into the program, the results can be summarized as follows:

Twenty-three carefully screened, highly motivated liberal arts freshmen and sophomores have each taken, for regular academic credit, from two to four quarters of one of the six neglected languages offered.[1] Working at their own speed with commercially available materials for approximately eight to ten hours a week, and with foreign student drill masters for another three to four hours a week, the NLP students have consistently demonstrated their ability to keep up with first year spoken language classes

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1. Kalamazoo College's tightly structured calendar, featuring foreign study for all students in their junior year, plus staggered vacations for both students and faculty, makes it advisable to select at Kalamazoo College mainly freshmen or sophomores. This would not, however, be a problem elsewhere. Indeed, at most institutions it would be wise to plan individual participation in such a way as to enable the student to follow it up at a higher level with minimum interruption. Otherwise a hard-earned proficiency might easily deteriorate through disuse.

taught by live instructors elsewhere. Visiting specialists from the Department of Far Eastern Languages at Michigan (Japanese, Chinese, Hindi-Urdu, Persian), the African Studies Center at Michigan State (Swahili), and the Peace Corps Training Center for Brazilian Portuguese at the University of Wisconsin in Milwaukee have been invited to examine these students quarterly and rate them on the same basis as their own regular students. (In all but one language the latter are using the same course materials and so furnish a good basis for comparison.) These specialists have regularly given the NLP students excellent ratings (A's and B's) and expressed considerable satisfaction with the progress achieved.

The writing systems have not been neglected either. After a good start has been made on the spoken language (one to two quarters), work is begun to develop reading skills in the Japanese, Chinese, Persian, Hindi and Urdu writing systems also. Though self-instruction in this area has likewise yielded satisfactory results, primary emphasis continues to be placed on listening comprehension and speaking. Of the six students who have applied so far, four have been awarded NDFL undergraduate summer fellowships for further study in 1965.[2]

Rather than seek to compete with graduate schools or area centers by attempting to establish a full fledged program at all levels, the NLP aims to make it possible for institutions with limited resources to supply graduate and area centers with undergraduates qualified to pursue summer work in a neglected language at the intermediate level or higher. A modest one or two year program of self-instruction at the grass-roots level can for the first time bring the study of a seldom taught language within reach of the tens of thousands of highly motivated, linguistically talented students who do not happen to be attending an institution where the language they want to study is taught.

Program requirements and cost. The cost of such a program as the above is so modest that even a small college which regularly admits one or more foreign students to its campus can arrange to add a new language to its curriculum, even for the immediate benefit of only one interested student,

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2. Two freshmen will continue Swahili at Michigan State, another will continue Persian at University of Michigan. One sophomore will be going to Wisconsin for second year Hindi-Urdu, another has been accepted into Earlham's program in Japan. Normally, however, Kalamazoo College sophomores are required to be in residence during their summer quarter, which is why more sophomores did not apply for summer fellowships elsewhere. Moreover, for the sophomores in Portuguese the College has set up a foreign study center in Lisbon.

provided the latter is sufficiently motivated.[3] To launch a program in a given neglected language requires the following initial investment: two to three copies of the text together with one complete set of pre-recorded dialog and drill tapes ($100 to $200, depending on the language), a supply of blank tapes (some 1200 ft., some 300 ft.), and fixed or portable lab facilities sufficient to permit the student (or students) to work with tapes individually for at least ten hours a week.

The program further requires the part-time services of at least one foreign student who is a native speaker of the language being undertaken. This foreign student, who is NOT to serve as a teacher, but SOLELY as a pronunciation drill master, reinforces the patterns already learned from the tape and should be paid the going rate for part-time U.S. student help ($1.25 to $1.50 an hour ?) for about six to ten hours a week of drill.[4] Informant cost per language per week: $9.00 to $15.00.

Finally, the program requires that a visiting specialist for each language be invited at the end of every term (perhaps for $50.00 and travel, as suggested by the USOE) to spend part of a day testing the student's oral command and listening comprehension, and furnishing the student's entire grade in accordance with standards prevailing at his own institution. In our experience the examiners have always proved very willing to come, commendably conscientious in their evaluations, and a source of helpful advice about how to correct any deficiencies they may have observed.

Depending on the number of languages and the number of students involved, a program would normally require no more than two to four hours a week of time on the part of the coordinator or director. This director

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3. Among the neglected languages for which suitable audiolingual taped course materials are available at this time are Chinese, Japanese, Hindi-Urdu, Swahili, Persian, Portuguese, Yoruba, South Vietnamese, and Hausa. With the support of NDEA Title VI funds similar course materials and reference works are being developed for other languages also.

4. It has been our experience at Kalamazoo that foreign students derive from the opportunity to collaborate in an educational experience of this kind personal satisfactions which far outweigh financial considerations. Foreign students often feel lonely or isolated on a U.S. campus. The opportunity to gain rapport and status among the U.S. students, the feeling of being useful, of helping some fellow-students to become conversant in their language, with their culture, can also be very beneficial to these foreign students.

need not be a linguist, nor need he have competence in any of the languages involved. He should, however, be acquainted with audiolingual teaching methods and have used them successfully in one of the more commonly taught languages. He must be enthusiastic and imaginative, as well as tactful in his dealings with the native informants. His visits to observe the live drill sessions should be short but frequent, especially when the informants are new to their task and need advice regarding the most effective techniques for eliciting student responses.[5] He might well hold a short weekly meeting with students and informants for the purpose of distributing new tapes, inquiring about the ground covered in the texts, and discussing any problems that may arise with respect to equipment, drill sessions, morale, and so on. Once every two weeks he should meet briefly with one informant in each language to record a ten minute test tape. On these tests, which spot-check course material covered in the preceding two weeks, the informant supplies the native voice, the director the instructions in English. Each student's test responses, recorded later on another tape, are then dated and stored away as part of the records available to the examiner upon request.[6]

Conclusions. While further variations of this inexpensive program are still being explored by this writer, the solid results obtained to date suggest that directed self-instruction may soon add a fruitful dimension to the study of neglected languages in this country.

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5. In addition to the usual rapid-fire drills (pronunciation drills, echo drills, replacement drills, etc.) that the students are put through with their books closed, the informant can later on, when the students are more advanced, use a variety of effective routines, such as directing situation dialogs among the students (with frequent switching of roles), telling simple stories for the students to retell in their own words, asking simple questions about a passage read aloud, making the students repeat instructions, describe culturally authentic pictures, talk briefly on prepared topics, and so on.

6. A typical NLP oral test might include some phrases randomly selected from the text for echoing, a series of rapid simple questions (e. g. What day is today?, Who is that man over there?, Why are you sad?), to which the student must invent reasonable replies, a number of English glosses from the text to be put into the target language, and (in the reading stage) a photocopy of printed matter or material in the informant's own handwriting for the student to read off onto his answer tape without previous preparation. Many other devices could also be employed, of course.

ARABIC

By William G. Cowan

Arabic is spoken by approximately 80 million people, spread from the west coast of North Africa to the Arabian peninsula. In addition, it is widely spoken as a second language in sub-Saharan Africa, East Africa, and the littoral of the eastern part of the Indian Ocean. It is the official language of 13 nations and has official status in several others. It is also the religious language of approximately 300 million Moslems, extending as far as Indonesia and the Philippines.

Arabic has great dialectal diversity, with hundreds of recognizably different dialects. However, it can be grouped conveniently into five main varieties: North African, Egyptian, Syrian, Iraqi, and Arabian. In general, North African is mutually unintelligible with the other varieties, while these other varieties are mutually intelligible among themselves. There is also a standard variety of Arabic--generally referred to as Classical Arabic--that is learned in school, and is practically the same throughout the Arabic-speaking area. Classical Arabic is used for writing, newsbroadcasts and formal speech, but not for ordinary conversation. It is also the language of the Islamic religion, as mentioned above.

Classical Arabic is written with the Arabic alphabet, as are some other languages of the Middle East. Spoken Arabic is not generally written at all. The Arabic alphabet goes from right to left, and differs considerably in shape from the Latin alphabet in its letters and principles of operation (for example, short vowels are not written, but must be inferred by the reader). It is, however, a true alphabet that is designed to represent the sounds of the language, and is not a script like Chinese.

Students of Arabic face the problem of having to learn two distinct varieties of the language--spoken Arabic for conversation, and Classical Arabic for reading and writing. Furthermore, they may have to learn one or more additional spoken dialects, since these are dissimilar enough to preclude the possibility of learning more than one at any one time. Because of these problems, pedagogical practice in the United States tends to concentrate primarily or exclusively on Classical Arabic. There are some exceptions, however, and a number of institutions teach some kind of spoken Arabic first, then Classical.

Both spoken and Classical Arabic are difficult for native speakers of

English. The phonology and the grammar of both differ considerably from that of English, and Classical Arabic appears still more formidable because of its unfamiliar orthography.

Arabic has an immense literature from both ancient and modern times. The Koran, which is a literary as well as religious monument, is the most important, and in some ways, the most difficult work of Arabic literature. There is also a large body of pre- and post-Islamic poetry of the medieval era, and a large body of traditional prose. Novels and short stories have developed only recently in Arabic literature, in general following European models. Another modern development is a respectable body of technical and expository writing, with a growing and sometimes confused technical vocabulary. Practically all of Arabic literature is written in Classical Arabic, even the most modern fiction and drama, since the prestige of that variety far outweighs the influence of spoken Arabic in all fields of endeavor.

SELECTED LIST OF MATERIALS

FOR ARABIC

The following list includes only those teaching materials which are considered acceptable by the compiler, and which are available or could be made available for public use.

SPOKEN ARABIC

Iraqi Arabic

1. Van Wagoner, Merrill Y., Spoken Iraqi Arabic. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1949. 220 pp. plus 53 pp. appendix. $4.50; records $60.50.
(Basic dialogues, grammar and drills. Dialogues in both transcription and Arabic script. An old but still useful text.)

2. _____, _____., Spoken Iraqi Arabic, Book II. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1958. $7.50. (Mimeographed.)
(Dialogues in transcription only. A continuation of the above.)

3. McCarthy, R. J. and Foraj Raffouli, Spoken Arabic of Baghdad - Part One. Beirut: Librairie Orientale, 1964. 546 pp. 15 Lebanese pounds (= $5.00).
(Traditional grammar-translation format, but carefully done. Exercises in transcription and Arabic script. Useful for reference and supplementary material.)

Syrian - Lebanese - Palestinian Arabic

4. Rice, F. A. and Majed Sa'id, Eastern Arabic. Beirut: Khayyati, 1960. 400 pp. $4.50.
(Basic dialogues, grammar and drills. All material in transcription only. The drills are inadequate; otherwise a useful text.)

5. Ferguson, C. A., and Moukhtar Ani, Damascus Arabic. Washington: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1961. 313 pp. $4.00. (Photo-offprint of mimeographed material.)
(Basic dialogues, grammar, drills. All material in transcription only. Useful, but condensed.)

6. Harrell, Richard S., Laila Tewfik, George Selim, Lessons in Colloquial Egyptian Arabic. (Revised edition.) Washington: Georgetown University Press, 1903. 230 pp.
(Photo-offprint. Model sentences, basic dialogues, grammar, no drills. All material in transcription only. Badly organized and pedagogically naive, but based on lively material.)

7. Lehn, Walter and Peter Abboud, Beginning Cairo Arabic. Preliminary edition. Austin, Texas: The Middle East Center, The University of Texas, 1965. x + 298 pp.
(Prepared under NDEA contract as a first-year college course, it has benefited from examination of previous textbooks and experimental use in class.)

8. Mitchell, T. F. An Introduction to Egyptian Colloquial Arabic. Oxford University Press, 1956. 285 pp. 25 shillings (= $3.92).
(Traditional grammar-translation format, but carefully done. All material in transcription only. Useful for reference and supplementary material.)

North African Arabic

9. Sa'id, Majed, Spoken Moroccan Arabic. Washington: Georgetown University Press, 1955. 181 pp. $??. (Photo-offprint.)
(Basic dialogues, grammar, no drills. All material in transcription only. Limited, but linguistically sound.)

MODERN STANDARD ARABIC

Writing System

10. Rice, Frank, The Classical Arabic Writing System. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1959. 49 pp. $1.25. (Photo-offprint.)
(Careful, graded introduction to the alphabet. Presents only handwriting, but is nevertheless, useful.)

11. Hanna, Sami A., and Naguib Greis, Writing Arabic, Salt Lake City: University of Utah Printing Service, 1965. 61 pp. $3.00. (Photo-offprint.)
(Primary emphasis on typed script, but also some handwriting. Pedagogically naive and in error in places, but useful.)

12. Al-Khaledy, Noury, Arabic for Beginners: Writing and Reading. Portland: Portland State College, 1964. 90 pp. $??. (Mimeographed.)

(Presents only handwriting, but is carefully and thoughtfully done.)

Basic Texts

13. Ziadeh, Farhat and R. Bayly Winder, An Introduction to Modern Arabic. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1957. 298 pp. $6.00; records $30.00.
(Reading selections, grammar exercises. Text begins with full vowelling and becomes progressively devowelled. Very condensed presentation of grammar in traditional terms, very carefully done. Useful if done slowly.)

14. Ferguson, C. A., and Moukhtar Ani, Lessons in Contemporary Arabic. Washington: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1960. 160 pp. $4.50. (Photo-offprint.)
(Basic sentences, grammar, exercises. The text is unvowelled throughout. Vocabulary lists transcribed. Grammar presented in linguistic terms. Useful, but too difficult at the beginning.)

15. Abdo, Daud, A Course in Modern Standard Arabic. Beirut: Khayyafi, 1962. 405 pp. 15 Lebanese pounds. (= $5.00).
(Reading selections, grammar, drills. The text is unvowelled throughout; vocabulary lists transcribed. Grammar is semi-traditional and minimized. Careful vocabulary control and repetition. Useful for learning to read newspaper prose.)

16. _____, ____, A Course in Modern Standard Arabic, Part II. Beirut: Khayyati, 1964. 509 pp. 15 Lebanese pounds (= $5.00).
(A continuation of the above.)

17. McCarus, Ernest, and Adil I. Yacoub, Elements of Contemporary Arabic, Part I. Ann Arbor: Ann Arbor Publishers, 1962. 221 pp. $5.00. (Photo-offprint.)
(Basic dialogues, grammar, drills. Text in handwritten, vowelled Arabic script; drill in transcription. An attempt to teach spoken modern standard Arabic. As such, it lacks realism.)

18. _____, _____, and Raji M. Ramunny, First Level Arabic, Elementary Literary Arabic for Secondary Schools. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1964. 240 pp. (Photo-offprint).
(Basic dialogues, grammar, drills. Text in handwritten, vowelled Arabic script and in transcriptions; drills in transcription only. Another attempt to teach spoken modern standard Arabic, on the high school level. It lacks realism.)

READERS

19. _____, et al, Contemporary Arabic Readers. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1963-64.
I: Newspaper Arabic. 280 pp. $4.50
II: Arabic Essays. 304 pp. $6.50
III: Formal Arabic. 358 pp. $7.00
IV: Short Stories. 394 pp. $7.50
Vo. V: Modern Arabic Poetry is still in preparation. (Photo-offprint.)
(Reading selections, glossaries, notes. Extensive and well-done, with a wide selection of styles.)

20. Brinner, William M. and Mounah A. Khouri, Advanced Arabic Readers. Berkeley: University of California, 1961-62.
I. Selections from the modern novel and short story. 229 pp. $4.50.
II. Expository Writing: intellectual and social trends. 272 pp. (Photo-offprint.)
(Reading selections, notes, glossaries. The material is graded, but still begins with rather difficult selections.)

21. Ziadeh, Farhat, A reader in modern literary Arabic. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1964. 426 pp. $8.50; tapes $60.00. (Photo-offprint.)
(Reading selections, notes, exercises, glossary. Standard in quality and format.)

CHINESE

By Nicholas C. Bodman

Some form of "Chinese" is the native language of over 500,000,000 speakers living within the political boundaries of China and overseas in Southeast Asia, Hawaii and the United States. Many more people in these areas have Chinese as their second language. Thus, Chinese is more widely spoken than any other language in the world. Over three quarters of these people natively speak some form of Mandarin, the group of dialects that covers most of Mainland China with the exception of the southeastern, mainly coastal area from the Yangtze River down around to the border of Vietnam. In these latter areas, very divergent forms amounting to separate related languages (Wu, Fukienese, Hakka, Cantonese, etc.) are predominant. Even in these so-called "dialect areas", Mandarin is used as the language of officialdom, the schools, in broadcasting, and often as the vehicle of communication between speakers whose local dialects may be mutually unintelligible. The Mandarin dialects proper differ considerably, but usually not to an extent to impede mutual understanding after some exposure. The official language is based on the cultivated Mandarin of Peking (divested of some of its localisms), and draws considerably from the older literary forms of Chinese as well, but the common core of vocabulary is shared by all Mandarin dialects.

Generally a Mandarin speaker will have a local accent reflecting his place of origin, but the variation here is usually not more extreme than that exhibited by speakers of Standard English in its several areas. Grammatical differences between the various Mandarin dialects are unimportant. Differences between the speech of social classes are not very great and involve choice of vocabulary rather than a difference in pronunciation. The speech of educated persons differs from that of the illiterate mostly by a larger range of vocabulary, greater use of more formal styles and the inclusion of more literary expressions.

Written Chinese varies widely as to style, from reproduction of natural speech in modern novels and plays to the literary language of the classics. Since 1919, the date of the so-called Pai-hua (Colloquial Language) movement, the use of the colloquial, more or less modified from actual speech usages, has grown apace. Even so, most writings in Pai-hua represent a more formal style of language than is the case for most European languages. One can compare the style of Mainland newspapers roughly with that of the best-known papers in the West, but in Taiwan and overseas, the newspaper style and the official documentary style differ from the colloquial much more

than the very formal language of English legal documents differs from conversational style. Their grammar is very largely based on classical Chinese, and the style tends to be terse and telegraphic.

The language of the classics (Third Century, B. C.) in its lexicon and syntax is as different from modern Chinese as classical Latin is from French. This language is the basis for later forms of Literary Chinese which differ only slightly from the classical language. This standardized Literary Chinese has been somewhat influenced by later spoken Chinese, but the influence of the literary language on the spoken language at all stages has been much more striking. The same writing system is used for both the literary and colloquial written languages, but when read aloud, the literary forms are realized with the modern pronunciation (varying according to dialect) of the corresponding forms.

The writing system is basically morphemic. Words may consist of one or several morphemes and are written with the corresponding number of characters. The morpheme with few exceptions corresponds to a syllable. It is a mistake to call the characters ideographic. From the earliest times down to the present, the writing is based on the spoken language. To be sure, some characters in their early forms were pictographic or symbolic or combinations of such elements of which hardly any are now recognizable in their present form, but from the earliest times it has been common for a character to be applied because of phonetic identity or similarity to more than one morpheme--like our rebus writing where both 'I' and 'eye' can be represented by a symbol originally devised for 'eye'. In a later stage, most of such homophones or near-homophones were graphically elaborated and so were kept distinct. Most characters now belong to this type of "phonetic compound", but because of changes in pronunciation through the ages, the originally similar forms have greatly diversified and there is at present such a range of sounds in the characters containing a common phonetic element that the recognition of this type is of little help pedagogically. Nevertheless, characters do not contain an infinite number of components--there are recurrent partials, some of which serve as "radicals" under which characters are listed in a dictionary. There are, for instance, 214 radicals for dictionary arrangement, of which about 90 subsume the great majority of entries. There are several hundred components commonly occurring in phonetic compounds, but there are only about 20 basic strokes with which any character is written.

Written Chinese consists of a string of characters representing the morphemes, but there is no indication of the immediate constituents nor is there even any way of distinguishing polymorphemic words from constructions. Thus an understanding of the text depends much more upon a knowledge of the underlying morphology and syntax of the language in addition to knowing

the individual morphemes than is true for most writing systems.

The characters exist in a number of different script forms: the standard printed form, a slight modification of this used in handwritten representation of the printed form, a simplified cursive form used in ordinary handwriting, letters, etc., and other more deviant forms used in artistic writing, and finally various archaic forms used in seals, inscriptions, etc.

Since the late 1950s, yet another form of writing has become very widespread on the Chinese Mainland. This is the simplified script now almost universal in use in all recent printed materials. Over 600 commonly used characters now appear in simplified form, that is with fewer strokes than the old standard printed form. These are based mainly on the abbreviations used earlier in the cursive style, but some new characters on the analogy of these have also been created. All publications in Taiwan and most in the area of the Overseas Chinese continue to use the older traditional printed forms.

The pronunciation of Mandarin presents hardly any more problems to the American student than that of many languages, although some features will initially seem very exotic, especially the tone that occurs with every stressed syllable. Morphemes may differ only in tone as: mā 'Ma', má 'hemp', mǎ 'horse' and mà 'to scold' with the high, rising, low and falling tones respectively. Stress contrasts exist, but cause no problem except that many textbooks do not mark stress. Somewhat troublesome is the contrast between the retroflex and palatal syllable initials, and the contrast of unaspirated and aspirated initials. Most of the good textbooks have adequate pronunciation drills and there is a very good short treatment for student use (No. 2 in the Bibliography), so with sufficient oral practice in class, and tape use, there is no reason why pronunciation should be a major stumbling block.

Acquisition of vocabulary is usually the easiest learning problem. In Chinese, the complete lack of the large number of common technical and scientific terms shared in European languages means that every item is initially new for the student, but this is certainly not important in the elementary stage and the good textbooks present the structure fairly completely with a minimum of vocabulary.

One cannot undertake in a two-year course of study any deep penetration into the more formal varieties of Chinese. It is for this reason, as well as because of a lack of any really good textbooks presently available, that we are opposed to the student in a liberal arts college undertaking the study of Literary Chinese. This study also requires the kind of teacher of literature (or the rarer linguist who combines an interest in literature) who

is seldom found except on the campuses of the larger universities. Literary Chinese has been taught with no reference to the modern language, but it has been found that a year, or better, two years of colloquial Chinese and colloquial style readings makes the study of the literature much easier. Indeed, some of the best programs in literary Chinese are conducted through the medium of colloquial Chinese, so for a variety of reasons it is advisable to get a good grounding first in the colloquial language and in writings based upon it.

Probably the major problem in an elementary Chinese course is that of when to introduce the written component. It would be possible, of course, to devote two years purely to the study of the spoken language. If this were done, the student would really have an excellent foundation in speaking and the comprehension of spoken language which would be adequate for residence in a Chinese-speaking area. If this goal should be chosen, any one of the introductory spoken language textbooks could be used initially (Nos. 1, 20a, 23 or 26 in the Bibliography). However, the books by Chao and Hockett have no spoken language sequels available for intermediate use. DeFrancis's text (No. 24) is now available and his 'Advanced Chinese' is planned, so a two or three year sequence based on his textbook is possible. By far the most complete range of spoken instructional materials exist in the Yale Mirror Series. A recommended sequence here would be Nos. 1 and 2 plus 3, 4, and 13 or 14 or both 13 and 14.

Generally, the student of Chinese is interested in learning to read Chinese, either for the intrinsic interest of the writings, or more usually as a tool for pursuing writings in Chinese relevant to a specific discipline in Graduate School. Because of the very difficult nature of the Chinese writing system, the student must spend a great deal of time learning characters which perforce reduces the amount of time left for study of the spoken language. In a typical two year program in Chinese, at least half the class hours are given over to reading. This means that the level of fluency in speech usually aimed at is considerably less than that for languages using an alphabetic script, where reading is a relatively easy problem. Yet it is acknowledged generally that a fair speaking ability is prerequisite to taking up the writing system, otherwise reading would become a process of laborious character-by-character decipherment. Linguists recognize the priority of the spoken language over its symbolization in writing, and good pedagogues realize that it is poor teaching practice to introduce more than one learning problem at one time. Therefore, once the underlying spoken forms are learned, the later learning of the written symbolizations is just one more step, difficult as it is. In the early stages of learning characters at least it is simplest then to learn the written equivalent of spoken texts already learned. Parallel character texts exist for Chao (No. 20b in Bibliography) and DeFrancis (No. 23a and others in preparation).

The Yale series readers (Nos. 7-10 and others) take up the study of characters systematically and only introduce forms already learned in their spoken language series, but the text of these books does not attempt to parallel that of the spoken language textbook sentence by sentence. Here should be mentioned also the fact that after a certain stage it is not necessarily an advantage to learn all the characters corresponding to morphemes in common spoken use, since many of these do not often occur in the kind of written materials that will be of most use and interest to the student. Reading texts such as those planned by DeFrancis (23b, c and d) are organized on this basis as are some of the texts of the Yale series, notably 11, 12 and 14 for colloquially based writings, and 5 and 6 for newspaper readings.

Programs differ rather widely as to when the writing system is introduced and in the relative time devoted to speech and reading. It is recommended here that at least three or four weeks elapse before writing is commenced. With the written component, a possible program for the first year is:

(a) For speech: One of the basic texts, 1,or 1 plus part of 3; or 20a; or 23; or 26.

(b) For reading: 7, or 7 and part of 8, 10, and 12; 20b; or 23a (or 23b when prepared).

For the second year:

(a) Complete 8 if started previously or switch to 14 without doing 8.

(b) Follow any sequence not already done in the colloquially based writings, or go directly into newspaper with 5 and 6.

Due to appear shortly is the Modern Chinese Reader by Harriet Mills, which contains selections on modern social science subjects. It is planned for use during the second and third years of instruction and can be used in conjunction with or as a supplement to newspaper selections.

Note that most programs do not give formal instruction in the varied script styles; however, 17 is an excellent introduction to cursive handwriting. When newspaper instruction is given with actual Mainland Chinese papers, the simplified characters must be learned as encountered. Textbook 6 gives simplified character forms commonly encountered in Mainland newspapers and is the only learning aid presently available outside of lists and conversion tables.

There are a number of texts available on various of the non-Mandarin 'dialects' that are suitable for use, but are not listed here because it is believed that all programs should start with the standard language. At present, study of such forms as Cantonese and Amoy is limited to a very few of the larger universities.

The bibliography appended here is a rather selective one, including only those texts that have proved successful with the oral-aural approach or those on reading which integrate well with this approach.

The oral-aural approach in its most usual form is well exemplified by Hockett's Spoken Chinese (No. 26) and DeFrancis's Beginning Chinese and Intermediate Chinese (Nos. 23 and 24), all of which use the basic sentence method. Hockett's text is now rather old, having been developed for Army use during the Second World War. DeFrancis's books are up-to-date and include excellent drill material. Chao's Mandarin Primer (20a) differs somewhat in presenting longish monologues for the most part rather than dialogues. Additional drills and examples are presented in Pian's A Syllabus for Mandarin Primer (21). Chao's text is perhaps not so easy to teach as the others, but is noteworthy for its naturalness of language, wit and excellent analysis. It could be used to great advantage as a 'follow-up' text after any of the others, especially in programs where speaking proficiency is strongly emphasized. All of these texts require complete or near-complete memorization of the basic sentences or passages. The Yale texts, Speak Chinese (No. 1), Chinese Dialogues (No. 3), and others, are examples of a somewhat different teaching philosophy. Rather than using basic sentences they stress acquisition of the basic construction types in basic patterns which are well exemplified and drilled upon, but do not require the degree of memorization inherent in the basic sentence method. (The revision of this text, which at present has not yet been accepted for publication, has been greatly improved, especially by more and better drills and by the addition of the Student's Workbook.) This Yale series of texts is long established, is well coordinated, and is probably more widely used than any of the others. The method of pattern sentences is well adapted to the learning of Chinese where the chief problems are the acquisition of the various syntactic patterns. These texts have been used when the goal is good spoken mastery or in more academically oriented programs where the goal is for less oral fluency than good comprehension and where the emphasis on reading grows in importance as time goes on.

Finally, a word should be said about transcription systems. The Wade-Giles system is still standard in scholarly works and dictionaries, but is no longer used in modern, approved teaching materials for spoken language. All the Yale materials use and have popularized the so-called Yale romanization. It has a somewhat less than perfect match with a phonemic analysis.

Tones are indicated by accent marks and stress is not marked. Hockett (No. 26) adds stress marks and diverges somewhat from the Yale system in details. Chao (No. 20a) uses the National Romanization (largely his own invention) which does away with tone accents by spelling conventions (like doubling letters, etc.). Outside of Mandarin Primer and a few other works, this system is fairly prevalent in England but not in this country. DeFrancis's books 23, 24 and 25, etc. use the system which is now the official romanization in use on the Chinese Mainland, the Pinyin, but to this he has systematically added the marking of stress. This system is not very different from the Yale system, and like it, uses accents to mark tone. Although it is conceivable that the Pinyin romanization may, for political reasons, make it unusable in some situations, it should be pointed out that DeFrancis's works were largely supported financially by the U.S. Office of Education. Chao's National Romanization takes longer to learn than do the others, but it has its very strong devotees. The Yale and the Pinyin systems are about equally easy to learn. Unfortunately, most students find it difficult to use more than one romanization system, so from this point of view, it may be advisable to stick to a series of textbooks that uses one uniform system.

SELECTED LIST OF MATERIALS

FOR CHINESE

1. Tewksbury, M. Gardner. Speak Chinese. (Mirror Series A-1) New Haven: Yale University, 1948. xvi, 189 pp. $3.00. Tapes from IFEL; 11 tapes, $55. Supplement - Revision of Lessons 1-6. $40.
(The basic patterns of Peking colloquial speech are systematically presented with abundant illustrative sentences and dialogues within a vocabulary of 500 words. The stress on model sentences is further enhanced by generalized structural patterns and grammatical notes. A complete revision with students' workbook and teachers' manual has been completed but is not yet in print.)

2. Hockett, Charles F. Progressive Exercises in Chinese Pronunciation. (Mirror Series A-2) New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1951. 57 pp. $1.25. Tapes from IFEL.
(Explanation of the pronunciation of romanized Chinese, and the tonal system, with extensive drill exercises.)

3. Wang, Fred. Chinese Dialogues. (Mirror Series A-5) New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1953. 385 pp. $4.00. Tapes from IFEL.
(This series of dialogues in daily life situations reviews in new settings the basic patterns of speech met in Speak Chinese and extends their use. The 500 word vocabulary of Speak Chinese is assumed, and 800 new words are added.)

4. Chu, Charles. A Sketch of Chinese Geography. (Mirror Series A-17) New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1954. 218 pp. $3.00. (Reader)
(The physiography and economy of China are treated in simple conversational style, providing materials for classroom conversation at a more advanced level than Chinese Dialogues, and introducing an additional vocabulary of 700 words and many common place names.)

5. Chih, Yu-Ju. A Primer of Newspaper Chinese. (Mirror Series A-12) New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1957. 219 pp. $3.00. Tapes from IFEL. 24 lessons. (Reader).
(These two volumes of annotated selections from Chinese newspaper materials provide a graduated approach to reading the undiluted newspaper. Selections illustrate the traditional style and the more colloquial style now used on the mainland.)

6. Chih, Yu-Ju. Advanced Newspaper Readings. (Mirror Series B-32) New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1960. 161 pp. $3.00. (Reader)

7. Wang, Fred. Read Chinese, Book I. (Mirror Series A-4) New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1953. 221 pp. $3.50. Tapes from IFEL.
(Covers the first 300 characters, using them first in sentences and then in stories for assimilative reading.)
FLASH CARDS to aid in the learning of the first 300 characters. 2 x 2 inches. $1.00.

8. Chang, Richard. Read Chinese, Book II. (Mirror Series A-24) New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1958. 223 pp. $3.00. Tapes from IFEL.
(300 additional characters, to a total of 600, are worked into narrative reading materials.)

9. Wang, Fred and Richard Chang. Read Chinese, Book III. (Mirror Series B-3). New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1961. 242 pp. $3.00. Tapes from IFEL, (Reader).
(400 more characters, to a grand total of 1000 including expository as well as narrative selections.)

10. Wang, Fred. The Lady in the Painting. (Mirror Series A-23) New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1957. 88 pp. $1.50. (Reader) Tapes from IFEL.
(A well-known folktale has been retold within the narrow limits of a 300 character vocabulary, to be used after Lesson 15 or following the completion of Read Chinese, Book I. 48 line drawings illustrate the story.)

11. Readings on Chinese Culture. (Mirror Series B-10) New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1963. 117 pp. $2.00. (Reader)
(A supplementary reader to follow Read Chinese, III. Twelve lectures on the Chinese social structure, language and linguistics, economics, government and politics, history and literature.)

12. Lee, Pao-chen. Read about China. (Mirror Series A-16) New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1958. 162 pp. $3.00. (Reader) Tapes from IFEL.
(A supplementary reader at the 600 character level, describing Chinese culture and customs.)

13. Fenn, Henry C. A Sketch of Chinese History. (Mirror Series A-10) New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1952. 183 pp. $3.00. (History)
(This elementary narrative of China's story from early times to the 19th century is planned to introduce the social studies vocabulary needed to

begin talking about current events.)

13a. Fenn, Henry C. A Sketch of Chinese History. (Mirror Series A-11) New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1952. 99 pp. $1.50. (History).
(A transcription of the text of A-10 into characters, prepared for supplementary reading at the 1000 character level.)

14. Forthcoming in Yale series: Twenty Lessons in Chinese Culture. (TLCC), 2 volumes.
Vol. 1: Text and vocabulary in romanized and character versions.
Vol. 2: Supplementary exercises and drills.

The following six listings are reference materials in the Yale Series.

15. Li, Tien-yi, ed. Chinese Newspaper Manual. (Mirror Series A-15) New Haven: Yale University, 1952. 270 pp. $3.50. (Newspapers).
(A completely revised edition of the original version published in 1953. The most important new feature is that all the Chinese items to be included in the book appear first of all in a general list or glossary arranged according to a convenient system of stroke counting and stroke order.)

16. Fenn, Henry C., ed. Chinese Characters Easily Confused. (Mirror Series A-18) New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1953. 84 pp. $1.25. (Writing system).
(Characters which appear similar to the beginner are so grouped that they may be easily compared and distinctions noted.)

17. Wang, Fred. Introduction to Chinese Cursive Script. (Mirror Series A-28) New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1958. 270 pp. $5.00. (Writing system).
(The first 300 characters introduced in Read Chinese, written in cursive form, have been analyzed and presented systematically to teach the student an approach which he may apply to other characters. Two-color process makes the key components of a cursive character stand out. Flash cards are available to accompany this text, giving the standard form on one side of the card and the cursive on the other.)

18. Huang, Po-fei, ed. Vocabulary of Spoken Chinese. (Mirror Series A-19). New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1954. 347 pp. $4.00. (Dictionary).
(English-Chinese vocabulary of approximately 5,000 words; Chinese-English vocabulary of approximately 4,000 terms. Characters are given for identification purposes in the Chinese-English section.)

19. Dictionary of Spoken Chinese. Yale Linguistic Series, Spring, 1965. (Dictionary).
(Compiled by the staff of Yale's Institute of Far Eastern Languages under a contract with the U. S. Office of Education, this new dictionary is a lexical and grammatical guide to the modern Chinese spoken language. It stresses identification of the grammatical and syntactic functions of the words listed, which it indicates both with identifying symbols and sentence-length examples. Because of these features, and thanks to its coverage of the modern spoken language, it will be a major tool for advancing the learning of Chinese in this country. It will include some 10,000 entries, with examples of usage, and will be the first such aid published since the smaller War Department dictionary of 1945, of which it is the authorized revision and expansion. Entries include both romanization and Chinese characters, making it possible for the work to serve the student well into his study of written colloquial texts. The Yale romanization of Chinese is used with cross-references making it possible also to locate forms directly using the official Mainland romanization.

(End of reference listings.)

20. Chao, Y. R. (20a) Mandarin Primer and (20b) Character Text. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1957. 2 vols. $10.00. (Reader).
(Planned by the same author: Readings in Spoken Chinese. Recordings from Linguaphone.)

21. Pian, Rulan C. A Syllabus for Mandarin Primer. Cambridge: Harvard Press, 1961. $2.00.

22. DeFrancis, John, ed. Beginning Chinese. (Yale Linguistic Series, 1) New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 1963, xxi, 498 pp. Cloth, $6.00; paper, $2.75.
(An introduction to spoken Chinese (Peking dialect) designed for use at both the high school and college levels. An extensive section on the sounds of Chinese is followed by a series of twenty-four lessons, some devoted to review. Based on a vocabulary of about 600 items, the lessons include dialogues, a great variety of drill material on pronunciation and grammar, and extensive notes and explanations. The Chinese material is given in the pinyin romanization, with an introduction to Chinese characters in lessons 25-26. Appendices include a comparative transcription table (pinyin, Yale, Wade-Giles), supplementary vocabulary, a study guide, a glossary, and an index.)

23a. DeFrancis, John. Character Text for Beginning Chinese. New Haven and London: Published for Seton Hall University by Yale University

Press, 1964. 436 pp. Cloth, $6.00; paper, $2.75.
(A character version of the author's Beginning Chinese (Yale Linguistic Series, 1), which presents the same material in the pinyin romanization. The text contains 494 characters, from nineteen to thirty-three characters per lesson. The new characters occurring in each lesson are first presented in large size, then in smaller size. Also included are a stroke order chart and other summary charts of characters.)

Planned by the same author: (24a) Character Text for Intermediate Chinese.
(25a) Character Text for Advanced Chinese.

Also for teaching of reading without reference to the above spoken texts:
(23b) Beginning Chinese Reader
(24b) Intermediate Chinese Reader
(25b) Advanced Chinese Reader

24. DeFrancis, John with the assistance of Teng Chia-yee. Intermediate Chinese. (Yale Linguistic Series, 7). New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 1964. xii, 542 pp. Cloth, $6.00; paper, $2.75.
(A continuation of the author's Beginning Chinese. This volume, like its predecessor, deals with spoken Chinese and is intended for use at both the high school and college levels. The book presents dialogues on everyday topics together with analysis of anticipated points of difficulty for the student and numerous sentences illustrating the usage of all new words and grammar. The Chinese material is given in the pinyin romanization. The work was developed under the contract with the U. S. Office of Education. Accompanying tape recordings and a teacher's manual available from the Institute of Far Eastern Studies, Seton Hall University, South Orange, New Jersey.)

25. Planned by the same author: Advanced Chinese.

26. Hockett, Charles F. and Chaoying Fang. Spoken Chinese (Mandarin). New York: Holt, 1944. 2 Volumes. 607 pp. Speaker: Mr. Chaoying Fang. Recordings cover units 1-12. Book contains units 1-30. Book, $6.00; key to recorded units 1-12, $1.00; 25 standard speed (78 rpm) Vinylite records, $63.75; federal excise tax on records, $4.25. Complete course: book, key, records, and federal excise tax on records, $75.00. Extra: Guide's Manual (in Chinese), $1.50.
(The speech of the North Chinese or Mandarin; no written Chinese.)

HINDI-URDU

By Gerald B. Kelley

Hindi is the most widely spoken language of India, with 123 million speakers, according to the census of 1961. This figure is a conservative one, since several areal varieties, with millions of speakers (such as Rajasthani), are listed separately by the census. Hindi is also widely spoken as a second language, particularly in urban areas, throughout the country. Urdu, one of the two official languages of Pakistan, where it has an estimated 30 million speakers, also has 23 million speakers in India.

Frequently, Hindi and Urdu are spoken of together as Hindi-Urdu. Though both have regionally quite divergent dialects, everyday discourse in any one place does not vary much among people who consider their language Hindi and those who consider it Urdu. The major differences are of two sorts: the writing systems and the learned or literary vocabulary. Hindi uses the Devanagari script, which is a semi-syllabary nearly identical in form and conventions with the system used for Sanskrit. Urdu uses the Perso-Arabic script, derived from a syllabic system for consonants, with "pointing" for vowels. Like other Semitic writing systems it reads from right to left. The literary and learned vocabularies of Hindi and Urdu are also quite different. The writer of Hindi looks to Sanskrit and Sanskrit literature for his imagery; the writer of Urdu looks to Persian. Similarly, coinages for technical terms are drawn from these sources in the same fashion that Western languages draw on Latin and Greek.

There is a considerable body of lyric and epic poetry in both languages, and in modern times a very large corpus of novels and short stories. The literary variety of Urdu is much more uniform than Hindi, especially in texts from earlier periods. Various court-centered literatures were written in such regional varieties of Hindi as Rajasthani, Braj, Awadhi, and Bhojpuri. The currently dominant variety in Hindi literature is Khari Boli, originally the language of the area to the east and northeast of Delhi. In Urdu, the major regional variant is the Deccani, the language of the literature composed at the court of the Nizams of Hyderabad. Because of the relatively wide regional differences in Hindi, the student learning to read earlier literature will have more difficulty with Hindi than with Urdu.

Current patterns of instruction in the United States reflect these facts.

Most programs do not differentiate between Hindi and Urdu on the elementary level. The usual format for the elementary course is semi-intensive (6-8 contact hours per week) and conversationally oriented. The elementary course typically makes use of a native speaker as teaching assistant or drillmaster under the supervision of a trained linguist. There is considerable variation in timing the learning of the writing systems. Ordinarily, students are taught the Devanagari system during the first year, and Perso-Arabic in advanced, literary courses. Some approaches do not include any writing system during the elementary course, but there are strong arguments against this strategy. Students usually feel more comfortable and confident when they are able to read the script, and are impatient with the phonemic transcription used by the text or constructed by the linguist in charge. It can also be argued that the investment made in learning the transcription system can profit the student little in return.

Difficulties in learning the pronunciation center on the high frequency contrasts of aspirate and non-aspirate stop consonants, the two-way contrast of tongue-tip stops (where English has only one), and the contrast of oral and nasalized vowels. In addition, Urdu-style pronunciations maintain contrasts in loanwords (such as that between a velar and post-velar stop) which are normally ignored by Hindi-style speakers.

Similar features of interference also characterize more complex levels of structure. In such matters the application of rigorous linguistic principles can well be expected to achieve the best pedagogical results.

A paucity of published texts is made up by the quality of those that have appeared more recently. As will be indicated in the lists to follow, good instructional resources are also available in the form of material as yet unpublished.

SELECTED LIST OF MATERIALS

FOR HINDI-URDU

Dictionaries.

No dictionaries are now available that are really satisfactory for the student, although the following can be listed:

1. Platts, John T. A Dictionary of Urdu, Classical Hindi and English. London: Oxford University Press, 1960. viii, 1259 pp. $20.20
(Very good for Urdu, but now rather antiquated.)

2. Pathek, R. C. (ed.). Bhargava's Standard Illustrated Dictionary of the Hindi Language. Chowk, Varanasi: Bhargava Book Depot, 1964 (reprint). 1280 pp. 12 Rs.

Basic Texts.

Most extensively used are the materials prepared by William McCormick. These are available from the Department of Indian Studies, University of Wisconsin.

3. Gumperz, John and June Rumery (with A. B. Singh and C. M. Naim). Conversational Hindi-Urdu. Berkeley, Calif.: Center for South Asia Studies, 1962-63. Vol. 1 (parts 1 and 2), 372 pp., $1.75 each part. Vol. 2, 241 pp., $2.25.
(Conversational material, pronunciation and grammar, drills and review.)
Audio-visual materials to accompany the text are available from the International Communication Foundation, 870 Monterey Pass Road, Monterey Park, California

4. Gumperz, John. Hindi Reader. Berkeley, Calif.: Center for South Asian Studies, University of California, 1960.

5. Gumperz, John and C. M. Naim. Urdu Reader. Berkeley, Calif.: Center for South Asia Studies, University of California, 1960. 226pp.

6. Fairbanks, Gordon. Spoken and Written Hindi. Ithaca, N. Y.: Cornell University Press (to appear soon).
(The major advantages of this work are its conversational and practice pattern drills, and an early introduction of the Devanagari script.)

7. Harter, J. Martin, Nanda K. Choudry and Vijay Budhraj. Hindi Basic Course. Units 1-18. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1960. 362 pp. $3.50.
(Somewhat specialized; does not deal with the script which, however, is handled in the Basic Reader.)

8. Harter, J. Martin, Jaimini Joshi and Nanda K. Choudry. Hindi Basic Reader. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1960. 83 pp. $1.50.

9. An introductory text with very useful and extensive drills has been prepared by O. L. Chavarria-Aguilar.

Intermediate and Advanced Materials.

(Urdu)

10. Khan, M. H. and Abdul Azim. A Second Year Urdu Reader. Berkeley, Calif.: Center for South Asia Studies, University of California, 1963. x, 191 pp. $2.85.

11. Narang, Gopi Chand. Karkhandari Dialect of Delhi Urdu. Delhi: Munshi Ram Manohar Lal, 1961. 80 pp.

(Hindi)

12. Zide, N. and C. P. Masica. A Premchand Reader.
(To be available from the East West Center in late 1965. Includes extensive cultural and grammatical notes.)

13. Zide, N. Poems of Surdas, and

14. Pandey, S. M. Poems from Mirabai.
(Both very useful, but rather specialized. Available from the South Asia Program of the University of Chicago.)

JAPANESE

By Eleanor Jorden

Japanese is spoken by the approximately 100,000,000 inhabitants of Japan and the Ryukyu and Bonin Islands. In addition, Koreans and Taiwanese who were educated before the end of the Japanese occupation of Korea and Taiwan in 1945, were taught Japanese in their schools and therefore know it as a second language, although they no longer use it under ordinary circumstances.

As a nation, the Japanese are among the most avid readers in the world and a staggering amount of written material of all varieties is published annually for this vast audience. Their more popular newspapers enjoy the highest circulation in the world.

There is an extensive literature in the Japanese language dating back to the eighth century. It includes poetry, novels, plays, diaries, etc. Until rather recently, The Tale of Genji was one of the few Japanese classics that had gained any fame in the English-speaking world--through its well-known translation by Arthur Waley--but in recent years there has been a marked increase in the availability of translated Japanese literary works, both classical and modern.

While there are regional dialects of Japanese, the dialect of educated Tokyo speakers is regarded as 'standard Japanese' and is the dialect most often studied by foreigners. It is the dialect regularly used by radio and television announcers and is understood throughout Japan.

The Japanese educational system is controlled by a centralized Ministry of Education and textbooks are regularly written in a standard written dialect. This is true of written materials in general. Depending on the spoken dialect of a reader, there will, of course, be some dialectal variation in how texts are read aloud, but such variations will rarely interfere with comprehension.

One complication of the Japanese language is its stratum of vocabulary that is of Chinese origin. Over and above its lexicon of native Japanese origin there are innumerable words and roots that were borrowed from Chinese. In many cases, native Japanese words and Chinese loan-words overlap semantically with the native words occurring more frequently in daily conversation, and the Chinese loan-words in more technical, learned speech

and/or in writing (cf. English 'understand' vs 'comprehend'). The Chinese-loan vocabulary is itself complicated by the large number of homonyms it includes. For example there are more than a dozen different words of Chinese-origin in Japanese, all pronounced kan: they are differentiated by written symbol and context in the written language, and by context in the spoken language (insofar as they occur in the spoken language).

Since the end of the Second World War, there has been a marked convergence of spoken and written Japanese. While the lexical differences described above still exist, inflections and syntactic structures are largely the same in both styles. Pre-war written materials present greater divergence from the spoken language, and classical literature the greatest divergence of all. The latter constitutes a study in itself and is one extremely difficult for a Westerner. Its problems would be similar to--but even greater than--those encountered by a Japanese trying to read Chaucer in the original.

The Japanese writing system is considered by many to be the most complicated in the world: it includes two syllabaries (called kana), each containing about fifty symbols, used in conjunction with thousands of Chinese characters (called kanji). The symbols of the syllabaries are simplified Chinese characters in origin, and have sound value only: i.e., kana symbols represent particular Japanese phonologic syllables, with no reference to meaning. Since every syllable that occurs in the Japanese language can be represented in both kana syllabaries, either syllabary is sufficient for the written representation of anything said in Japanese. Traditionally, however, nothing beyond introductory first grade reading texts is written in kana alone. In the usual Japanese written text, most nominal, verbal, and adjectival roots are represented by kanji (Chinese characters), which represent sound plus meaning. Inflectional endings, particles, and words for which Chinese characters do not exist or are not traditionally used, are represented by the more cursive kana syllabary--the hiragana syllabary. Most loan-words and words being used with special meaning are written with the more angular syllabary--the katakana. (The use of katakana by the Japanese is roughly parallel to our use of italics). If we had a similar writing system for English, the sentence 'The sputnik is staying on course' would be written as follows:

the, is, -ing, on would each be represented by a hiragana symbol having syllabic sound value only.

sputnik, a loan-word from Russian, would be represented by katakana symbols, also having syllabic sound value only.

stay-, course would each be represented by a Chinese character indicat-

ing sound + meaning: the character representing this 'stay', meaning 'remain', would probably not be the one used, for example, to represent the 'stay' of 'mainstay'; the character representing this 'course', meaning 'fixed route' would not be the one used to represent the 'course' of 'of course'.

Since the end of the Second World War, the number of Chinese characters (kanji) in common use in Japan has been reduced to about 2,000. In order to read earlier material it is necessary to know not only many more characters, but also to know the older, more complex form of those characters that have been simplified.

For native speakers of English, both spoken and written Japanese are extremely difficult. The main difficulties of the spoken language involve a syntactic structure vastly different from that of any Western European language, a rather complicated inflectional structure, and an unusually complex structure of politeness and formality. While the segmental sounds of the language do not present any serious pronunciation problems, the prosodic features of accent, intonation, and syllabic rhythm are difficult for most Americans. If these features of a foreigner's speech are too far from the accepted norm, a Japanese may not even realize that the foreigner is trying to speak his language, much less understand what he is saying.

The difficulties presented by the writing system are of a vastly different nature. The student must not only memorize several thousand Chinese characters over and above the two syllabaries; in most cases he must learn several different readings for each character, some of native Japanese origin, others originally borrowed from Chinese. Given a particular linguistic environment he must know which is the correct reading on that occasion. The amount of time a native Japanese must devote to the problem of learning to read his own language is an indication of the tremendous difficulty involved.

The teaching of Japanese is becoming more and more widespread throughout the United States. Universities differ considerably in their methods and approach, but, in general, more emphasis is being placed on speaking skills, at least in the elementary phases. The modern linguistic approach, which recognises that speaking and reading are two different skills, and that reading should follow the acquisition of some oral proficiency, is gaining increasingly wide acceptance. Introductory courses tend to be more intensive than the traditional 3-hour-per-week course: the complete range is from three to thirty. (the University of Washington, for example, offers a one year, full-time introductory course during which students take no other courses) with most university courses in the range between five and ten hours per

week. Tape laboratories offer students the opportunity to hear and practice Japanese outside of the classroom. Summer institutes make it possible for students to devote a period of full-time study to Japanese, and many students use this period to concentrate on improving their spoken skills if their regular Japanese courses have been insufficiently intensive for them to develop any significant oral proficiency. Again, depending on the university, introductory courses are usually taught either by a native-speaking Japanese instructor alone, or by a teaching team consisting of a native-speaking instructor and a supervisory scientific linguist. Usually, supplementary tape laboratory hours are also scheduled. Literary courses are regularly taught by Japanese or Western specialists in Japanese literature.

The availability of modern textbooks for both spoken and written Japanese, and of high-fidelity tape recordings made by native speakers of Japanese, suggest that undergraduate courses in Japanese need not be limited to those colleges having a large staff of Japanese specialists.

SELECTED LIST OF MATERIALS

FOR JAPANESE

Texts for Teaching the Spoken Language, Using a Romanized Alphabet.

1. Jorden, Eleanor Harz, Beginning Japanese, Parts I and II. (With the assistance of Hamako Ito Chaplin). New Haven: Yale University Press, 1962-1963. (Each part is available in cloth and paper editions.)

(This text is based on the author's analysis of Japanese which uses the techniques of modern scientific linguistics. The method is one of guided imitation, and the aim is to develop control of the language through memorization and manipulation of whole utterances. In addition to basic dialogues, detailed grammatical notes, conversations, narrative selections, and a glossary, the text contains more than 400 structured drills.

A series of 60 high fidelity tapes, including all basic dialogues, drills, and supplementary material, is available from Electronic Teaching Laboratories, 5034 Wisconsin Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C. The same recordings are also available on multitrack tape for use with the Electronic Notebook, from Electronic Futures, Incorporated, 361 State Street, North Haven, Connecticut.

This text, with accompanying tapes, was the Japanese text selected for use in the experimental, self-instructional Kalamazoo program.)

2. Martin, Samuel E., Essential Japanese. Rutland, Vermont and Tokyo: Charles E. Tuttle Co., 1962.

(While this text has been described as primarily for the American living in Japan, this does not in any way preclude its use as a text in this country. Emphasis is placed on basic sentence patterns introduced with a limited vocabulary. Its grammatical notes, based on a modern linguistic approach, are clear, detailed, and useful even to students studying with other texts.)

3. Niwa, Tamako and Mayako Matsuda, Basic Japanese for College Students. Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1964.

(Each lesson in this text contains vocabulary, a pattern passage, grammar, drill, a comprehension passage, and exercises. In spite of a generally modern format, several remnants of a traditional approach are apparent: for example, all new vocabulary is introduced through vocabulary lists which occur as the first section of each lesson; also, the student is advised by the authors to study the grammar and practice the drills before taking up the basic pattern practice (contrary to the order of their occur-

rence in the text). The book contains copious drill material which concentrates heavily on inflectional manipulation and substitution in minimal environments.)

Texts for Teaching the Japanese Written Language.

4. Chaplin, Hamako Ito and Samuel Martin, A Manual of Japanese Writing. New Haven: Yale University Press, this text is to be published in late 1965 or early 1966.
(This text teaches the 881 Chinese characters taught to Japanese children in elementary school (the so-called kyoiku-kanji). It presupposes familiarity with the kana syllabaries. The characters are introduced in reading passages of varying format (expositions, narratives, conversations, letters, etc.) which provide interesting, accurate and useful information about many facets of Japanese culture. The language is authentic and its vocabulary and content make it an excellent preparation for the reading of modern Japanese periodicals. Supplementary reading drills, romanized versions and translations of all the texts, and various study aids included in the book make it possible for a student to use this text with little or no class instruction; thus, class hours with a Japanese instructor can be freed for conversation practice in Japanese about the reading texts, thereby enabling a student to improve his spoken skills while he learns to read.)

5. O'Neill, P. G. and S. Yanada, An Introduction to Written Japanese. London: English Universities Press; New York: David McKay, 1963.
(This book introduces kana and a total of 680 Chinese characters within graded reading texts, most of which are narrative passages of only limited difficulty. It includes romanized versions and translations of the texts and other study aids, thus making it possible for a student to use the text with only a minimum of instruction, but it provides no material for reading practice beyond the basic lesson texts.)

6. Miller, Roy Andrew, A Japanese Reader. Rutland, Vermont and Tokyo, Japan: Charles E. Tuttle, 1962.
(This introductory reading text is divided into five sections, the first two of which introduce kana and kanji gradually, with a structurally elementary framework. From the third section on, most reading passages are selections borrowed or adapted from modern Japanese writings, and difficulty increases sharply. Each lesson introduces large numbers of new words, new Chinese characters, and new structural patterns. Stylistic differences of individual authors also create problems.

For the reading passage of each lesson, there are vocabulary lists and reading notes, but no romanized versions or translations and no material for supplementary reading practice. Unlike the two reading

texts described above, this book does not lend itself to self-instruction. Beyond Section II, it is of most use to an advanced student who has already acquired considerable reading facility.)

7. Hibbett, Howard and Gen. Itasaka, Modern Japanese: A Basic Reader. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1965.

Texts for Teaching the Spoken and Written Language.

8. Young, John and Kimiko Nakajima, Learn Japanese. Tokyo, Japan: University of Maryland, 1963-64. 4 volumes.
(These introductory texts were designed originally for military personnel stationed in Japan, who were studying Japanese under the auspices of the University of Maryland Extension Program. The first volume is written entirely in Roman letters, but the following three volumes use a mixture of Japanese writing and romanization, introducing a total of about 300 Chinese characters. Lessons include dialogues, pattern outlines, numerous drills, and supplementary material. Structural patterns, vocabulary, and Chinese characters are introduced very gradually; accordingly, even the material of Volume IV is still at a rather elementary level.)

PORTUGUESE

By Henry J. Hoge and James L. Wyatt

Heading the list of the approximately 95,000,000 speakers of Portuguese is Brazil, a country with half the people of South America and a land area exceeding that of the 48 contiguous United States.

Brazil's 70,800,000 inhabitants speak a variety of Portuguese differing somewhat from the "standard Lisbonese" of the Continent, but for all practical purposes the varieties are mutually intelligible. The principal differences are phonological and lexical, and while some authorities stress the differences, the degree of difference is not serious to the American student, whichever variety he studies.

Pre-World War II textbooks in this country presented the dialect of Portugal, but textbooks since that period have switched to Brazilian Portuguese. According to a recent survey, Brazilian Portuguese is the dominant dialect taught in United States colleges and universities.

Besides being the national language of Brazil and Portugal (9,639,000 inhabitants), Portuguese is spoken in the Azores (336,933 inhabitants), Angola (4,946,000 inhabitants), Portuguese Guinea (549,000 inhabitants), Mozambique (6,640,000 inhabitants), Cape Verde (201,549 inhabitants), the Madeira Islands (282,678 inhabitants), Tome and Principe (63,676 inhabitants), the former Portuguese colonies of Goa, Daman, and Diu, now Indian territory (with a total of 649,000 inhabitants), and Macau, in southeastern China (169,299 inhabitants), although not all inhabitants of all these areas regularly speak Portuguese.

The body of literature in the Portuguese language dates from the golden age of literature in Western Europe in the sixteenth century, with the publication of The Lusiads of Luis de Camões in 1572. Aubrey F. G. Bell has stated that "the Portuguese is the greatest literature produced by a small country with the exception of Ancient Greece."[1] From that source has sprung the now vigorous Brazilian literature.

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1. Cited by Samuel Putnam in Four Centuries of Brazilian Literature, p. 20, as from an article by Bell in Fortnightly Review, London, June, 1922.

The study of Portuguese presents no special problems to the American student not encountered in the study of at least some other Western European languages. Some might consider the lack of consistency of spelling somewhat unique to Portuguese, since cultural agreements between Portugal and Brazil have not brought about thoroughly standardized spelling. The student of literature might well despair of meeting with variant spelling practices.

The current general pattern of instruction in the United States for lower courses of Portuguese includes from three to five contact hours per week, with additional required laboratory practice. More intensive courses are offered at some academic institutions.

SELECTED LIST OF MATERIALS

FOR PORTUGUESE

A selected list of the most useful reference and teaching materials for Portuguese language study follows. This listing includes both traditional materials and the few items available which reflect the current advances of linguistic theory.

Commercially prepared materials known to be out of print have not been included. Materials not listed in the 1962 MLA Selective List of Materials, or which are listed with more current bibliographical data, are indicated by asterisk (*).

Under the category Special materials are listed which are not known to be commercially available but which may be available for reference or for special teaching programs.

Traditional

Basic Texts

1. *Agard, Frederick B., Hélio Lobo, and Raymond S. Willis, Jr. Brazilian Portuguese from Thought to Word. Princeton: Princeton Univ. Press, 1944. 277 pp. Re-published by Holt, Rinehart, Winston with original title page.
(Non-standard grammatical analysis. Inductive type exercises ("Observed Grammar") plus translation exercises. No oral or reading selections. No oral exercise material.)

2. Hills, E. C., J. D. M. Ford, J. de Siqueira Coutinho and L. G. Moffatt. A Portuguese Grammar. Revised. New York: D. C. Heath, 1944.
(A revision, somewhat condensed, of the original edition of 1925, with greater emphasis on Brazilian usage. Standard grammar-translation format.)

3. *Ibarra, Francisco and Arthur Coelho. Brazilian Portuguese Self-Taught. New York: Random House, 1943. 405 pp.
(Conversation phrase list and situation vocabulary lists supplied. Lists of verbs by category. Extensive English-Portuguese vocabulary.)

4. Riccio, Guy. Introduction to Brazilian Portuguese. Annapolis: U. S. Naval Institute, 1963. 299 pp.
(A well-organized standard format grammar. Oral exercises of fill-in and Q-A type (non-patterned).)

5. Rossi, F. Carlo. Portuguese: The Language of Brazil. New York: H. Holt and Co., 1945. ix + 379 + lxxxv.
(Standard leitura plus grammatical analysis and exercises. Phonetic transcription of reading selections and lesson vocabularies. Detailed appendices containing thorough study of orthography (with lists of exceptions); lists of verbs by types (reflexive, prepositional, etc.).)

6. Sá Pereira, Maria de Lourdes. Brazilian Portuguese Grammar. New York: D. C. Heath, 1948. 403 pp.
(Detailed pronunciation analysis in Introduction (by Robert Hall, Jr.) Phonetic transcription for all lesson vocabularies and main vocabulary. Standard leitura plus grammatical analysis and drill exercises.)

7. Williams, Edwin B. An Introductory Portuguese Grammar. New York: F. S. Crofts (Appleton-Century-Crofts), 1942. 168 pp.
(A minimum essential or outline of the Portuguese language. Brief Q-A and translation exercises.)

8. Williams, Edwin B. First Brazilian Grammar. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1944. 194 pp.
(Format similar to An Introductory Portuguese Grammar by the same author. A minimum essential grammar.)

Reading Materials (Graded)

9. Carter, Henry Hare. Contos e anedotas brasileiros. A Graded Portuguese Reader. Boston: D. C. Heath, 1942. 241 pp.
(Simplified selections chiefly from modern Brazilian authors. Brief exercises, vocabulary.)

10. *Dale, George Irving. Artigos e contos portuguese. New York: F.S. Crofts (Appleton-Century-Crofts), 1941. 222 pp.
(Selections chiefly from Portuguese writers of modern period (one Brazilian author included).) Notes, Q-A exercises for first five selections.)

11. *Hamilton, D. Lee, Albert R. Lopes, and William X. Walsh. Conversas sul-americanas. New York: F. S. Crofts (Appleton-Century-Crofts) 1946. 218 pp.
(Informational dialogues on South America and Brazil. Standard Q-A exercises for each dialogue.)

12. *Rossi, F. Carlo. Vida brasileira. A Portuguese Reader about Brazil. New York: H. Holt, 1949. 124 + lxxii.
(Graded cultural reader, covering geography, history, economy, music and art. Brief Q-A exercises on each section.)

Reading Materials (Edited texts)

13. *Alencar, José de. Iracema. Ed. by D. da Cruz. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1943. 145 pp.
(Text of this classic edited with vocabulary and brief Q-A, fill-in exercises. Text of additional interest as early example of Brazilian variations of standard Portuguese.)

14. *Hamilton, D. Lee and Ned Carey Fahs. Contos do Brasil. New York: F. S. Crofts (Appleton-Century-Crofts), 1944. 332 pp.
(An anthology of selections by modern Brazilian authors. Short biography of each author. Vocabulary, notes.)

15. Verissimo, Érico. Gato preto em campo de neve. Ed. by Lloyd Kasten and Claude Leroy. New York: H. Holt and Co., 1947. 183 + lxxvii pp.
(A careful edition of the U. S. travel impressions of Erico Verissimo. Vocabulary and notes. No drill or conversation exercises.)

Conversation Manuals

16. *Chérel, J. -L. et A. Le Portugais sans Peine. Paris: "Assimil", 1957. 438 pp.
(One of the series. Practical conversation plus structure analysis based on French patterns. Useful for self-study approach to general travel and conversational needs. In French.)

17. Kany, Charles E. and João B. Pinheiro. Spoken Portuguese for Students and Travelers to Brazil. Boston: D. C. Heath, 1947. xiv + 187 pp.
(Topical conversational phrase-list format, with brief section on pronunciation and appendix with grammar analysis. No ordered syntactical progression, nor integration of syntax with conversational selections.)

18. Kany, Charles E. and Fidelino de Figueiredo. Portuguese Conversation: Elementary, Intermediate, Advanced. Boston: D. C. Heath, 1942-43. 62 pp., 70pp., 86 pp.
(Topical conversational phrase lists. No systematical syntactical progression. Footnotes and vocabulary.)

19. Lopes, Albert R. Bom dia! One-Minute Dialogues in Portuguese. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1946. 33 pp.
(Fifty very brief topical dialogues (4-5 lines each) without exercises. Almost exclusively in present tense. Useful as supplement to early phase of an introductory course.)

20. Reno, Margarida F., and Vincenzo Cioffari, and Robert Hall, Jr. Spoken Portuguese. Book One. New York: D. C. Heath, 1944. 204 pp. plus vocabulary.
(Re-spelling transcription by Robert Hall. Phrase-building technique.)

21. *Reno, Margarida F. Portuguese: A Handbook of Brazilian Conversation. Chicago: Wilcox & Follett Co., 1943. 234 pp.
(Phrase-lis introduction technique. Extensive word lists arranged by topics and grammatical categories.)

Recent Materials

Basic Texts

22. *Ellison, Fred P., Bryan Head, et al. Portuguese Audio-Lingual Materials. Austin: Univ. of Texas, 1965. ca. 300 pp.
(Fourteen units. Reading selections, recombination dialogs, pattern drills. No grammatical analysis. Used experimentally in Austin Secondary School pilot project. Available in limited quantity from author by Sept. 1, 1965.)

23. *Hoge, Henry W. and Peter Lunardini. Oral Brazilian Portuguese. Milwaukee: Univ. of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, 1964. xii + 424 pp.
(An intensive oral text, consisting of four introductory plus fifteen main Units. Dialogs plus structural analysis and extensive fully patterned oral exercises. Used in trial form in 27 oral teaching programs in 1964 with partial subsidy from ACLS-SSRC.)

24. *Leroy, Claude. Português para principiantes. Book I. Madison: Extension Division (Univ. of Wisconsin), 1964. 266 pp.
(Introduction pronunciation section. Sixteen lessons plus ten cultural selections and contos. Standard format reading selection plus grammatical analysis, exercises. Semi-patterned oral exercises provided for each lição. Book II, to complete the structural coverage of Portuguese, reported as forthcoming.)

Reading Materials

25. *Englekirk, John E. Outline History and Anthology of Brazilian Lit-

erature. Los Angeles: Univ. of California Press, 1963.
(Reported as completed in NDEA "Completed Research..." (List 3: Washington, 1963.) Reported as "In Press" in List 4 (Washington, 1964).)

26. *Pereira, Terezinha Alves. Falando no Brasil: Português para principiantes. Belo Horizonte: Edições Belo Horizonte, 1964. 119 pp.
(Short narrative selections on life situations ("A casa", "A família", etc.) plus brief oral exercises. No systematic syntactical progression.)

27. *Menton, Seymour. Brazilian Drama. Five contemporary Brazilian plays. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts; reported "In Press" as of January, 1965.

Special

28. *Jong Filho, Gerrit de. O nosso próprio livro de leitura. Provo (Utah): ed. da Univ. Brigham Young, 1960. 151 pp.
(Readings and general Q-A exercises. Quizzes and vocabulary.)

29. *Jong Filho, Gerrit de. Leituras fáceis e instrutivas. Provo (Utah): ed. de Univ. Brigham Young, 1964. 76 pp.
(Simplified stories plus vocabulary and Q-A exercises.)

30. *Silva, Guilherme de Castro e. Vida nova. Phoenix (Arizona): American Inst. for Foreign Trade, 1963. 168 pp.
(General situational reading and dialog selections ("Preparativos de viagem", "Nas ruas do Rio", etc.) Partial vocabulary and list of expressions given separately for each unit.)

31. *U. S. Army Language School. Basic Situations. Reproduced at U. S. Military Academy. West Point, 1961. 131 pp.
(Series of sketches and dialogues for each of eleven general situations. Illustrated.)

32. *U. S. Military Academy (Foreign Language Department). A series of interrelated manuals, as follows:
a. Leituras militares. West Point, 1960. 72 pp.
(General military topics (20): "As fôrças armadas brasileiras", "A infantaria", etc. with vocabulary.)
b. Trechos literarios. West Point, 1963. Nine literary selections.
(Some footnotes, no vocabulary.)
c. Brasília: An Introduction to Brazilian Portuguese. Part I. West Point, 1964.
(Unpaginated. Series of 33 dialogs with brief exercises; many illustrations.)

d. O gôstico das ilusões. West Point, 1964.
(A continuation of Brasília (no. 3, above) Unpaginated. 15 Chapters. Long semi-narrative dialogs with brief exercises.)

e. Cruzeiro do Sul (Lettures Brasiliennes). West Point, 1962. 27 chapters. by F.C.H. Garcia. Unpaginated.
(General cultural and historical readings. Brief cognate and expression analyses.)

f. Exercícios suplementares. 3ª Classe, 4ª Classe. West Point, 1964.
(Standard work-book format; to accompany O Cruzeiro Brasília, and O gôstico das ilusões. Cued to these books.)

g. Selectas literárias. West Point, 1962. Twenty poetic selections.

h. A Handbook of Portuguese Grammar. West Point, 1964. 130 pp.
(Standard grammatical analysis. No dialogs, reading or drill exercises.)

Foreign Language Basic Texts

33. *Almeida, Napoleão Mendes de. Gramática metódica da língua portuguêsa. 18ª ed. São Paulo: Edição Saraiva, 1965. 579 pp.
(A thorough coverage of Brazilian Portuguese usage. Valuable notes on current colloquial constructions.)

34. *Cruz, Marques da. Português prático: Gramática. 28ª ed. São Paulo: Edicões Melhoramentos, 1964. 382 pp.
(Largely a syntactical analysis of Portuguese, following classical pattern and terminology.)

35. *Lima, Rocha. Gramática normativa da língua portuguêsa. Pref. de Serafim da Silva Neto. Rio de Janeiro: F. Briguiet e Cia., 1964. 597 pp.
(Classical "normative" type grammar (sentence analysis, figures of speech, etc.)

36. *Tôrres, Almeida. Moderna gramática expositiva. 16ª ed. Sao Paulo: Editôra Fundo de Cultura, 1964. 277 pp.
(Classical syntactical analysis. Short literary selections in appendix.)

37. Vazquez Cuesta, Pilar and Maria Albertina Mendes da Luz. Gramática portuguêsa. 2ª ed. Madrid: Editorial Gredos, 1961. 551 pp.
(An excellent reference grammar of Peninsular Portuguese. Historical introduction on dialectal variants of Portuguese. Frequent references to Brazilian Portuguese. Bibliography. In Spanish.)

Dictionaries

38. *Ferreira, A. B. de Hollanda and José B. da Luz. Pequeno dicionário brasileiro da língua portuguêsa. 11ª ed. Rio de Janeiro: Editôra Civilização Brasileira, 1964. xxxiii plus 1301 pp.
(Introduction contains full text of orthographic accord of 1943. The best all-Portuguese single volume dictionary for Brazilian Portuguese.)

39. *Houaiss, Antônio and Catherine B. Avery. The New Appleton Dictionary of the English and Portuguese Languages. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1964. 636 pp. (Eng.-Pig.) plus 665 pp. (Pig.-Eng.).
(The best single-volume bi-lingual dictionary.)

40. *Pietzschke, Fritz. Nôvo Michaelis Dicionário Ilustrado. I: Inglês-Português, 4ª ed., 1962. 1123 pp. II. Português-Inglês. 2ª ed., 1962. 1320 pp. São Paulo, Edições Melhoramentos.
(The most complete English-Portuguese dictionary. Brazilian entries increased in latest edition.)

Current Research and Developmental Programs

41. Syntactical Analysis of Contemporary Brazilian Portuguese. Henry W. Hoge (Univ. of Wis.-Milwaukee-Office of Education) 1964-1965.
(Includes computer analysis of sample constructions.)

42. Course in Brazilian Portuguese for Speakers of Spanish. David Feldman (Univ. of Colorado-Office of Education). Contracted 1962.
(No report of progress available.)

43. Portuguese Language Development Group (PLDG).[1] Chairman, Fred Ellison (Univ. of Texas--SSRC-ACLS).
   a. Experimental use of trial oral intensive materials (1964). (SSRC-ACLS grant).
   b. Development and experimental use of visual materials. 1965. (SSRC-ACLS grant).
   c. Preliminary research in teaching of writing, phonology of Brazilian Portuguese, etc. for Modern Portuguese textbook project. 1965. (SSRC-ACLS grant).
   d. Modern Portuguese text project.
(A team project, scheduled for Summer and Fall Semester of 1966.

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1. For a detailed report of activities and plans of the PLDG, see Hispania XLVII, No. 4 (Dec., 1964), 819-827.

Research in (c) designed to support this project.)

44. Auto-Instruction Programs for Neglected Languages. Peter Boyd-Bowman (Kalamazoo College-Office of Education).
(Includes Portuguese. 1965.)

RUSSIAN

By Leon I. Twarog

Russian is the native tongue of approximately 110,000,000 persons in the Soviet Union, is the second language for the non-Russian population of that country, and is generally a required school subject in all the satellite countries. In Europe alone then, it is a language of primary influence for about 310,000,000 people. It is also of considerable importance in China and in many of the Asian countries. Moreover, Russian is very rapidly becoming the second language of science, and in certain scientific fields is definitely that already. Even if the cold war were to end tomorrow, the importance we now attach to Russian would in no way be diminished. In addition to its political and scientific value, we must also remember its cultural value, and the fact that it serves as the vehicle for one of the great literatures of the world.

Modern standard Russian is generally accepted to mean the language spoken by the educated inhabitant of Moscow. Although some dialects do exist, they are not of sufficient deviation from the standard language or of sufficient importance to warrant the development of a separate body of literature. Spoken Russian does not differ from written Russian except insofar as the vocabulary and syntax of spoken language may normally differ from that of the written language. Russian is one of the simplest of the six critical languages. In difficulty it has often been compared with German.

Modern Russian as we know it dates from the beginning of the nineteenth century when one language became accepted as the standard for both the spoken and written forms. Literature that would be of most interest to college students, that of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, therefore, presents no problems. Older Russian literature was based on an artificial language, Old Church Slavonic (or Old Bulgarian) which differed considerably from the spoken language. By the end of the seventeenth century the process of modifying the official written language was well under way, but it took an additional 150 years for the present literary language to evolve.

Russian is written with the Cyrillic alphabet, consisting of 32 letters, almost all of which are taken directly from the Greek and Roman alphabets. Students find that they can master both the printed and the written alphabets within two to three weeks with little difficulty. The cursive form of Russian

differs little from English although the sounds represented by the same symbol may be different.

Russian orthography is much more phonetic than English, but not completely phonetic, despite the claims made by Russian natives. If one is aware of a few rules and patterns, then this aspect of Russian can easily be mastered. With the exception of one sound, all the other sounds of Russian can be shown to exist in approximate form in spoken American English especially in rapid speech where the ending of one word flows into and fuses with the beginning of the next.

Russian is an inflected language using six cases and consequently may be somewhat easier for the student who has already had some Latin, Greek or German. Compared to other inflected languages, the system of declensions is relatively simple. Declensions are based on gender of the nouns and, with few exceptions, gender is determined by the ending of the noun. In essence there are three declensions in the singular, but only one for the plural.

The verbal system consists of only two conjugations and a total of five tenses thanks to the system of aspects whereby each verb has two infinitive forms--one to indicate single completed actions and the second for all other categories. While at first the aspect system, which is common to all Slavic languages, may be confusing, the student soon comes to appreciate the economy of the Russian verbal system.

Accent in Russian is variable, that is, it may fall on a different syllable for the same word in different cases, as opposed to some of the other Slavic languages such as Czech, which has the accent only on the first syllable, or Polish, which has the accent on the next to the last syllable. This does pose a problem for students, but usually at more advanced levels where unaccented texts are used.

Vocabulary can be a problem for the beginner since, except for scientific terminology or modern terms, there are very few cognates for the English speaker. In coining new words, especially those of an abstract nature, the Russians do not use Latin or Greek as we would in English, but rather use Old Church Slavonic (Old Bulgarian) for this purpose, which means that it is a self-contained Slavic system. On the other hand, word order in Russian is approximately the same as we have in English, although in poetry the inflectional system does permit considerably more variety and flexibility in word order than is possible in English.

Although Russian is still a critical language, it is no longer one of the neglected languages. Tremendous gains have been made both on the secon-

dary school level and on the college level since World War II and particularly since 1957. The enrollment figures for 1963-64 are taken from recent surveys published by the Modern Language Association:

	1957-58	1963-64
Schools Offering Russian	16 (enrollment approx. 200)	700 (enrollment approx. 23,839)
Colleges	173 (enrollment approx. 5,000)	608 (enrollment approx. 33,538)

Approximately one third of colleges and universities which offer foreign languages are now teaching Russian. On the basis of enrollments in the secondary schools, Russian is in fifth place, and is just about to overtake Italian, which holds fourth place, and which has had relatively steady enrollment over the years. On the college level it is securely in fourth place, with enrollment approximately double that of Italian.

At the close of World War II, the only usable elementary text in English was one that had been written for British commercial travelers around 1890. The approach in language learning and teaching was the traditional one until just three or four years ago when materials utilizing the audio-lingual approach began to appear in Russian. Now most textbooks have been revised so as to allow for the possibilities of adaptation to the audio-lingual method. There are a few textbooks which are exclusively audio-lingual.

Teaching materials for use by English speaking students have appeared in quantity over the past few years. Publishers in this country and in the USSR have been putting out a veritable stream of good, usable materials. The Russian teacher may now select materials to fit his own special needs, rather than to adapt his needs to the available text materials.

The study of critical languages has been combined with area studies programs at many of the major universities, and in a number of undergraduate programs at smaller institutions. In the United States there are probably more area programs concerned with Russia and Eastern Europe than with any other geographical area. In a sense the area programs and the language programs support each other and help to stimulate interest in each other. Support under the NDEA for Language and Area Centers and foundation support have been invaluable in building programs and developing strength in research and teaching.

SELECTED LIST OF MATERIALS

FOR RUSSIAN

The works listed below are intended to help college programs get started. A much more complete listing with critical bibliographical data is included in evaluations appearing in the MLA's Selective List of Materials (SLOM) (1962) and in the Supplement to SLOM for Russian, Polish, German, Norwegian, and Swedish also published by the MLA (1965). Although the MLA list is aimed primarily at elementary and secondary school needs, many of the items can be used just as successfully on the college level. Another useful source is the Russian section of the Linguistic Reading Lists for Teachers of Modern Languages published by the Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D. C. The materials listed below are intended to cover the first two or three years of college studies.

Basic Texts

1. Dawson, Clayton L., Charles E. Bidwell, and Assya Humesky. Modern Russian I. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1964. xiv, 480 pp., $6.95; Modern Russian II. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1965. xi, 479 pp., $6.95.

   (Modern Russian I and II, modeled after the MLA's Modern Spanish, provides a four semester or four quarter course based on audio-lingual principles and aimed at speaking proficiency within the framework of the traditional language program. Each volume consists of 18 lessons and can be covered in a one year course meeting from three to five hours per week. Tape recordings are available for most of the materials. Basic portions are available on LP records. A teacher's manual is also available. These are the newest and most promising materials today, but some revisions may be required before they become standard materials. Vocabulary is more extensive than needed. Many of the pattern drills should be transferred to the Teacher's Guide. If supplementary reading material is not introduced after the first half of Book I, the approach may become too monotonous and boring.)

2. Fayer, Mischa and Aron Pressman. Simplified Russian Grammar. 2nd ed. New York: Pitman, 1962. 425 pp. $5.00. Workbook by John E. Allen III. Manual for the teacher. Recordings.

   (Traditionally oriented, but easiest to adapt to the audio-lingual method. The Workbook makes things easier for both teacher and student.)

3. Lunt, Horace G. Fundamentals of Russian. New York: Norton and Co., 1958. x + 320 pp. $5.00.
(Combines traditional features of presentation and exercises with much explicit linguistic material and some innovations in grammatical description. The only text with a limited vocabulary. Some confusion in the use of transliteration and phonetic transcription. This work requires considerable outside reading material and a skilled teacher for good results.)

4. Magner, Thomas F. Beginning Russian: A Modified Audio-Lingual Approach. New York: MacMillan, 1963. 234 pp.
_____, _____. A Sketch of Russian Grammar for Beginning Students. New York: MacMillan, 1963. 53 pp.
(Part I consists of a collection of Russian pattern drills, and a selection of simple reading texts. Part II is used as the companion text.)

5. Stilman, Galina and William E. Harkins. Introductory Russian Grammar. Boston: Blaisdell, 1964. xi + 563 pp. $7.00.
(An attempt to combine the traditional and the audio-lingual methods. Dialogues, pattern drills, but also grammar-translation exercises.)

Conversation Books

6. Bogatova, G., et al. Practical Russian. Moscow: Foreign Languages Publishing House, ca. 1964.
(Divided into 20 sections each with a reading selection, and then dialogues based on the reading passages. Drills, exercises, vocabulary. Idiomatic contemporary Russian. May be purchased through Cross World Periodicals (Chicago), Victor Kamkin (Washington, D. C.) or Four Continents Bookstore (New York City).)

7. Kany, Charles E. Spoken Russian for Students and Travelers. Boston: D. C. Heath, 1951. 272 pp. $2.75.
(Sixty dialogues. Part I especially valuable because dialogues are brief, and sentences can be used for pattern drills.)

8. Khavronina, S. Russian As We Speak It. Moscow: Foreign Languages Publishing House, ca. 1964.
(Probably the best conversation manual used extensively in fourth or fifth semester classes. Similar to Bogatova, but more attention paid to dialogues. Exercises, Key to Exercises, Vocabulary, and Appendices listing useful expressions. Available through same bookstores as Bogatova.)

Dictionaries

9. Slovar' russkogo jazyka. Moscow: Academy of Sciences, 1957-61.

(Distr. Cross World, Four Continents, Victor Kamkin) 4 vols. 963 + 1013 + 991 + 1088 pp. $16.00 set.
(The latest standard, large, general-use dictionary of current Russian.)

10. Lapidus, B. A. and S. V. Shevtsova, The Learner's Russian-English Dictionary. Cambridge: M.I.T. Press, $5.00.
(For the first two years of language study. The 3,500 words which in the opinion of the authors are the most frequent. Also contains verb lists and charts not usually found in other dictionaries.)

11. Muller, V. K. English-Russian Dictionary. 6th ed. New York: Dutton, 1959. 699 pp. $6.95.
(The best available. Adequate for general purposes.)

12. Ozhegov, A. I. Slovar' russkogo jazyka. Moscow: Foreign Languages Publishing House, 1960. (Distr. Four Continents, Cross World, Victor Kamkin).
(The standard normative one volume, abridged dictionary. About 53,000 entries.)

13. Smirnitsky, A. I. Russko-anglijskij slovar'. 4th ed. Moscow: State Publishing House of Foreign Language Dictionaries, 1959. $6.96. (Distr. Cross World, Four Continents, Victor Kamkin.)
(Probably the best current, general Russian-English Dictionary available.)

Readers. A variety of readers is now available from many different sources.

Elementary Readers

14. Bond, Otto F., George V. Bobrinskoy and others, Graded Russian Readers. 2nd ed. Boston: D. C. Heath, 1961. Available separately in limp covers (I: 66 pp., $1.10; II: 70 pp. $1.10; III: 94 pp. $1.25; IV: 84 pp. $1.25; V: 82 pp. $1.25) or bound together with cloth cover, 352 pp. $3.40; paper, $2.85.
I: Lermontov's Taman'. (Only present tense is used.)
II: Pushkin: Two Stories. "The Stationmaster" "The Shot".
III: Lermontov's Bela.
IV: Turgenev: Three short stories from A Sportsman's Sketches.
V: Turgenev: A Provincial Lady.
(Excellent choice of stories. Gradual addition of basic vocabulary and complicated grammatical forms with repetition of most basic vocabulary in subsequent stories.)

15. "Easy Readers" (Accented). Moscow: Foreign Languages Publishing House, n.d.

Chekhov, A. P. Short Stories, 127 pp. $.35.
Gorky, A. M. Selections From Maxim Gorky, 112 pp. $.35.
Tolstoy, A. Nikita's Childhood, 96 pp. $.35.
Tolstoy, L. Fables, Tales and Stories. A Captive in the Caucasus. 84 pp. $.40.
Turgenev, I. Short Novels. Povesti. 168 pp. $.50.
(For elementary or intermediate levels. All paper bound.)

16. Karpovich, Michael. A Lecture on Russian History. Annotated and glossed by Horace G. Lunt. The Hague: Mouton, 1959 (Distr. Harvard Co-op.) 74 pp. Paper $1.25.
(Accented. Easy reading. Very clear style. Suitable for fourth semester.)

17. The Library of Russian Classics. Bradda Books, 1960. Available from Russian Language Specialties, Box 4546, Chicago 80, Illinois.
(Reprints of classics of Russian literature in accented texts, with notes and vocabulary. Suitable for the end of the second year or the third or fourth years. Approximately 40 titles to choose from.)

18. Pargment, Lila. Modern Russian Reader for Intermediate Classes. 2nd ed. New York: Pittman, 1960. 232 pp. $3.50.
(Excellent for ambitious second year students. Prose selections and two one act plays. Some texts are adapted or simplified.)

19. Paustovsky, K. and N. Novoselova. Rabbit's Paws and Zinochka. Ed. L. B. Turkevich and V. T. Bill. Princeton: Van Nostrand, 1961. 102 pp. Paper, $1.25.
(Good exercises and notes. Suitable for second year.)

Review Grammar

20. Birkett, G. A. A Modern Russian Course. 3rd. ed. New York: Oxford, 1947. 330 pp. $4.50.
(Very complete. Most usable and practical of review grammars available.)

Reference Grammars

21. Maltzoff, Nicholas. Russian Reference Grammar. New York: Pittman, 1965. 332 pp.
(Most complete treatment of subject matter by topics. Table of Contents very detailed, and is really a good index.)

22. Pulkina, I. M. A Short Russian Reference Grammar with a Chapter

on Pronunciation. ed. P. S. Kuznetsov. Moscow: Foreign Languages Publishing House, 1960. (Distr. Four Continents, Cross World, Victor Kamkin.) 267 pp. $1.25.
(Systematic presentation of all important grammatical points. Might be more useful for the teacher than for the student. No index, but good table of contents.)

23. Unbegaun, Boris O. Russian Grammar. New York: Oxford, 1957. 346 pp. $4.80.
(Systematic presentation of material. Difficult in language. Full treatment of Russian syntax. No index, but extensive table of contents.)

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